

ITALY DURING THE  
WORLD WAR

SALVATORE A. COTILLO



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# Italy During the World War







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# ITALY DURING THE WORLD WAR

BY

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WITH AN INTRODUCTION BY  
GENERAL A. DIAZ



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*Dedication*

*To the Heroes of the  
World War*



# INTRODUCTION

(*Translation*)

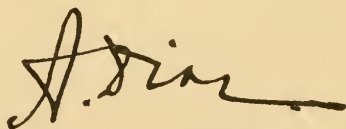
The idea of a book meant primarily for Americans and which would gather the living description of the spirit and talk of Italy and her achievements during the war, was bound to appeal to and inspire the high mind of a man whose personality includes these two nations and who, having gone to Italy as an American charged with the work of research and propaganda, felt and understood as an Italian the essence of the events and of the men who were their exponents.

Like all truths this book does not appear too late, for the light that has gradually pierced through the public consciousness finds in it a warm affirmation and, above all, a precise and eloquent documentation.

A summary of its subject matter would do it but scant justice; it must be read as it is, for nothing else could be effectively substituted for what is written in its pages and nothing can take the place of what is set forth in the last chapter "Lest we forget."

Italy is marching forth securely to her future, conscious of having accomplished her full duty towards all, and proud of having again found in her people, those virtues which have always predestined her to be, in the world, a firm and steadfast element of civilization.

To Senator Cotillo the merit of his book, to the Americans and all other chosen minds the perusal of it, to the Italians the all-pure satisfaction of having been understood by a mind that has been able to so nobly comprehend and appreciate.

A handwritten signature in dark ink, appearing to read "A. Sin" with a long, sweeping horizontal stroke extending to the right.

10. XII. 1921







Gen. A. S. S. S.  
October 1920



## INTRODUZIONE

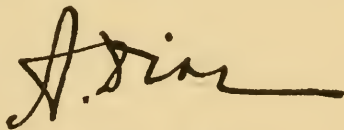
Un libro destinato essenzialmente agli Americani, e che raccoglie la viva descrizione dello spirito e del pensiero italiano e le opere dall'Italia compiute durante la guerra, ben meritava di ispirare la mente elevata di un uomo che le due Nazioni raccoglie nella sua personalita' e che, recatosi in Italia come americano con incarico di indagine e di propaganda, come italiano ha sentito e compreso l'essenza degli avvenimenti e gli uomini che ne erano l'esponente.

E, come tutte le verita', questo libro non giunge in ritardo, giacche' la luce che man mano si e' fatta nelle coscienze trova in esso una calda affermazione, e soprattutto una documentazione eloquente e precisa.

Un riassunto non raggiungerebbe lo scopo: bisogna leggerlo, giac che' nulla puo' piu' efficacemente sostituirsi a quanto in quelle pagine e' scritto e nulla puo' far le veci di cio' che e' raccolto nell'ultimo capitolo, scritto "per non dimenticare."

E l'Italia cammina sicura verso il Suo avvenire, nella coscienza di aver compiuto verso tutti ogni Suo dovere, nella fierezza di ritrovare nella sua gente quelle virtu' che l'han sempre destinata ad essere nel mondo soldo e costante elemento di civilta', umanita' e di progresso.

Al Senatore Cotillo il merito del libro, agli Americani ed a tutte le menti civili il meditarlo, agli Italiani la soddisfazione purissima di essere stati compresi da uno spirito che ha saputo nobilmente intendere ed apprezzare.



10. XII. 1921



## AUTHOR'S NOTE

The purpose of this book is to give in a concrete way a vivid picture of Italy during the World War. It is hoped that through this narrative, which is based upon the author's personal observation and information which he gathered in part from interviews with prominent men in England, France and Italy, a contribution may be made which will bring about a better and more sympathetic understanding between our two peoples.

The writer endeavors to convey to the American readers something of the unusual sacrifices and hardships made not only by Italy's military population but also by her civilian population. He also hopes to convey the finer appreciation of Italy's character that those who were actually in the field gained. Italy's work of reconstruction is hard, and imposes severe austerity on the life of the Italian people, but these, with patriotic sentiments, are accepting the sacrifices and the heavy taxations, being confident in the bright future of their country. No one who saw the whole Italian people rally to stiffened resistance after Caporetto, and in less than one year, in the face of difficulties that seemed insuperable, prepare the final glorious victory on the Piave, can but have confidence in the gradual and certain restoration of the financial order of the State and of the economic structure of the nation.

The writer wishes to acknowledge his indebtedness and extend his thanks to his friend, the late Professor Alessandro Oldrini, Comm. Francesco Quattrone, High Commissioner for Italy, whose information regarding the needs of Italy was most helpful, to the Italian Bureau of Public Information for the use of some statistics, and to Mr. Agostino De Biasi of Il Carroccio for the use of some of the illustrations.



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# Italy During the World War

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## CHAPTER I

### MY SPECIAL MISSION TO ITALY

When I left America on May 18, 1918, to explain to the Italians the reason that impelled us to plunge into the Great War after three years of neutrality, my mind was engrossed with many perplexing questions. Could we, in view of the German propaganda to the contrary, convince the Italians that we had joined the Allies, heart and soul, for the defense of democracy against barbarism; for the defense of the principles of nationalities; for the right of all nations to shape their own destinies? Could we show the Italians that we were with them in the fight as much as we were with either France and England we, who until Caporetto had thought of the war only in the terms of the Western Front, that is, "the French front," forgetting that Italy, a small nation by comparison with the other Allies, was waging a Titanic struggle over the most difficult terrain of this war? Had we not both forgotten the magnitude of Italy's task and also to the effect harbored slanders of unmistakable German origin that Italy was in the war for selfish reasons?

The hydra-headed monster of German propaganda had spread its malignant influence in all allied countries. In America, it

had won a certain section of our public to the idea that Italy had sold herself to the highest bidder. In Italy, it had employed the same identical tactics. America, according to the German version of our war motives, was a "kolossal" bluff, and the ultimate aim of America's bluff was America's own aggrandizement. With characteristic German psychology, German propagandists explained that America's idealism was a mask behind which lay America's lust for dollars and more dollars.

Had I been sent to address the intellectuals my mission would have been purposeless and vain. For it was the intellectual class that raised the hue and cry which resulted, first, in the declaration of war against Austria, and then by the declaration of war against Germany. These intellectuals knew our motives and the causes that resulted in our entrance into the conflict; but the ignorant masses, who knew of America only as the place "where wealth accumulates," where idealism is unknown, where nothing is attempted without counting the material reward, these masses, were they not easy prey for the German propagandists? The spread of false and malicious remarks, our apparent slowness in getting started, our complete oblivion of Italy until Caporetto, these facts surely reacted unfavorably upon the minds of the people. They became skeptical of our might and out of this skepticism grew a feeling of hopelessness which resulted ultimately in a general weakening.

The ship on which I voyaged was a troop-

ship, carrying a contingent of Southern troops. Never have I seen a more determined, athletic, soldierly looking body of men. Those boys made life cheerful on a trip that was always perilously near the end of things. Even when in the most dangerous portion of the zone, they maintained their good spirits, and they fortunately transmitted them to all the other passengers aboard. They seemed always unafraid of the many dangers ahead. They were on their way to get over with a difficult job, and whether they went under while on the way, or in the performance, mattered little to them. I blessed those boys for the many peaceful hours which might, under different circumstances, have been restless, and I prayed that every one of them would return unhurt.

Arriving in London, I was impressed with its appearance. This made me at once realize the immensity of the great conflict into which we had been plunged. Every male of military age wore a uniform and the streets were filled constantly with the wounded and the permanently crippled. Camions and ambulances filled with the wounded drove through the streets in never-ending procession. The dark, dismal nights filled with the fear of Boche air raids made peaceful repose impossible. But the people on the whole went about their accustomed work, apparently indifferent and unperturbed by what was going on around them. I must say, nevertheless, and this is based upon what I was able to gather from those in a

position to know, that the morale of the English people was dangerously low as a result of the successes of the German army. But whatever may have been their attitude toward the outcome, they scarcely gave any visible sign of the feeling of apprehension which must surely have crept into their minds as a result of the German advances.

What I have said of London was true of Paris, though the people of Paris had suffered more intensely than the English. Throughout the long, terrible days, when Paris seemed destined to fall into the hands of the Huns, throughout the horrors of the nightly air raids and the daily shelling by long range guns, their stoicism and faith never diminished. What anguish, what mental torture the French must have suffered, few only know. Unlike the English, the French women were permitted to wear mourning garb; and few, if any, were without it. The maimed and the wounded were everywhere. Every step brought one face to face with the horrible deeds of the treacherous Boche.

While in Paris I held conferences with Generals Bliss and Pershing, relative to the despatching of American troops to Italy. I had become convinced after my talks with men lately returned from Italy that the best and most effective propaganda would be to send a body of our boys there. The Italians were apparently going through a period of patriotic regeneration since Caporetto, and nothing would have helped to spur it on than the presence of American

troops. Both Generals were decidedly against the plan, because of the perilous situation confronting the Allies on the Western front; every man available was needed to help stave off the German thrust at Paris and let me say right here, that Paris was dangerously near capture during the days of June, 1918. Allied strategists had given up hope of saving her and plans were made for retreat. But events do not always follow as strategists insist they must: many times in history the indomitable spirit of the private has refused to accept the cocksure opinion of the battle-planners, and the result has not infrequently turned out as the private had hoped, fought and died for.

I was greatly disappointed at the decision of General Pershing for all my plans had been based on the hope that troops would be sent. There was nothing to do, however, but to accept his decision. He did promise to send troops later, and he fulfilled this promise in July. Their arrival produced just the effect we had hoped it would.

Before my departure for Rome, I had the good fortune to visit the Chateau-Thierry sector. That was at the time when Chateau-Thierry was held on the north by the Germans and on the south by the Marines. With Captain Weeks of the Intelligence Department, Martin Green of the New York World, Arthur Ruhl of Collier's and Charles Selden of the New York Times, I motored to the Second Divisional Headquarters along a road that was jammed with refugees



fleeing to Paris, ammunition trains, troops, guns, camions of every description and ambulances carrying their wounded to the rear. The road from Meaux, called the gateway to Paris, was on both sides lined with shell-torn and devastated homes. We arrived at headquarters. A minor engagement was going on at the time. We heard the deafening roar of the guns behind us and the whizzing sound of the enemy's shell hurtling above us. During the engagement a detachment of Marines brought in about three hundred Boches and the thing about them that has remained most vivid in my memory was the look of relief upon their faces. They bore the unmistakable signs of having suffered severe hardships, and their air of weariness probably explained the expression of relief that they wore. I left Paris on the night of June 14th, and arrived in Rome on the 16th. The discomforts of the hard travelling were more than compensated for by the wonderful Alpine scenery. Its beauty made one rejoice inwardly, and momentarily forget the horrors of war.

My arrival in Rome was marked by scenes that will live long in my memory. The Eternal City was resplendent with flags and decorations, in celebration of the wonderful victory achieved by the Italian army on the Piave and the people gave themselves up to wild rejoicings.

On June 15th the Austrians launched a formidable attack all along the Piave and the Asiago plateau, their objective being to

bring about a decisive defeat of Italy and render her helpless. Hurling her seventy divisions against fifty-five Italian and three Allied divisions, possessing a superiority in guns and material, as well as in position, she sought by the swiftness and intensity of her attack to overwhelm the Italians. But instead of overwhelming them Austria sustained defeat. Five days before the attack began, the Italian High Command, using the excellent system of espionage at its disposal, had knowledge of the date, the place of attack, and the number of troops to be used by the Austrians. Acting upon this information the Italians massed their troops at the expected point and began a violent bombardment of the Austrian lines five hours before the Austrian attack was to begin. This was followed by a massed attack, causing the Austrians to break ground and retreat.

Thirty thousand Austrians were made prisoners, large quantities of booty were seized, and a considerable portion of the territory lost to the enemy during October was regained. In addition to these gains the greatest result of this, I might say, unexpected victory was its effect not only upon the morale of the Italians, but upon the morale of all the Allied troops. We must admit that until these brave Italians made their heroic stand, the morale of all the Allies was at its lowest ebb. The victory, however, instilled new hopes in the Allies and assured them of Italy's determination to stand firm. Before the battle, many grave

doubts were uttered by Allied officials regarding Italy's power to keep on fighting. Many thought that she could not withstand another attack, because of the demoralization of her troops: many said she was ready to make a separate peace. Her victory proved the contrary.

Immediately upon my arrival at Rome, I consulted with Ambassador Page. I found him to be a man of deep sympathies, possessing a broad vision, and a warm love for Italy.

I delivered my first address to an audience of about 3,000, made up largely of Socialists. My subject was "America and the World War." I confined myself to an outline of America's motives in entering the war, her armies, her accomplishments during the war, the aid she was giving the Allies and her friendship for Italy.

We had decided that Turin, a large industrial center and the home of the defeatists, would be the first large city for intensive propaganda. In August, 1917, a serious uprising had occurred there, which was quelled only after a considerable number of men and women had been killed and thousands wounded. This disturbance was a result of the defeatist propaganda which was being spread among the people by pacifists, Socialists and Germans. The scarcity of food was also one of the causes. The Government seized a large number of the men who had taken part in the uprising, drafted them into the service and sent them to the front where they mingled with the other men,



spreading their socialist and defeatist propaganda.

Reaching Turin, I spoke to large groups of workers in the various munitions factories. Chief among these was the Fiat Factory, which employed over 42,000 workers. These men and women left their tasks voluntarily to listen to me. While I cannot say that I aroused great enthusiasm, for my audiences were as a rule cold and dispassionate, still I went away conscious that I had set them thinking, which after all was what I had set out to accomplish.

But I addressed one gathering of about three thousand in Turin's largest theatre. The enthusiastic reception which they accorded me gave me great joy and even the applause which greeted my reference to America and to our soldiers was small in comparison to the outburst that acclaimed my narrative of America's accomplishment during the war. Never have I seen a group of people become so wrought up over the recital of mere facts, though this can be explained by stating that whatever America did would in turn benefit Italy. Few of us can realize what America's entrance with her unlimited resources meant to those poor Italians. To the women, young and old, toiling in the munitions works or in the fields, producing the supplies to sustain their men at the front, to the aged and the infirm, the children and the sick who suffered at the hands of the raiding Huns, to the poor suffering for the want of food; to the agonized and wearied hearts of the mothers and wid-

ows of those who had fought and died, America was truly the beacon light of hope and peace.

Turin, as I have before stated, is a large industrial centre. The plants that I visited were equipped with best modern machinery. The organization and efficiency were all that could be expected and the methods used would equal our own. Italy, because of her lack of raw materials and capital, was for a long time the object of German commercial interest. It was this despotism that kept her from expanding, industrially and commercially, but the moment she broke loose from German industrial dominion she began to grow. It will not be long before Italy will be recognized not only as an agricultural country but also as one of the leading commercial powers. Her men are possessed of brains, initiative and ideas; and with the proper and disinterested financial backing she must surely expand.

I returned to Rome, where I was one of the principal speakers at the Fourth of July celebration in honor of America. If one ever doubted the affections and sympathy of the Italians for America, all doubts would have been dispelled after witnessing the spontaneous, generous, and whole-hearted manner in which the Italians celebrated our day of independence. And what was taking place in Rome was occurring all over Italy.

Never have I witnessed denser and more enthusiastic crowds than those gathered before the Victor Emmanuel monument in



SENATOR CUTILLO REPRESENTING AMERICA

July 4, 1918, in Rome, addressing thousands in front  
of the Victor Emanuel Monument



Rome and before the American Embassy to listen to Ex-Ambassador Page. The Victor Emmanuel monument is situated on the famous Capital Hill fronting an immense square. The vast multitude occupied every available space. Everywhere floated the flags of our Allies and principally the American flag. Every mention of America and President Wilson was the signal for tremendous applause. I delivered a short address which seemed to meet with general approbation. I was followed by Major Byrnes, of the American Red Cross and a member of our State Board of Regents, and Captain De Roody of the United States Marines, one of the heroes of Chateau-Thierry who had been dispatched to Rome with thirty-one of our wounded boys, all of Italian birth. I want to relate an incident which will give an illustration of the Italians' feelings toward America and at the same time demonstrate the democratic spirit of the people. After the celebration was over, Mr. Moses, attached to the American Bureau of Information in Rome, who had charge of the Captain and his party, discovered that two of the boys were missing. He finally located them in a cafe standing against the bar, an Italian General between, drinking as merrily as though one of them.

After the ceremonies in the Square the whole mass moved to the American Embassy, preceded by a cortege made up of civic and military organizations. Mr. Page delivered a splendid address in Italian, which was received clamorously.

Leaving Rome, I travelled to Naples to begin my series of lectures through the southern provinces of Naples, Avellino, Salerno, Catanzaro, Reggio, Messina, Palermo, and then through the northern provinces of Genoa, Perugia and Padua. I must say that the approach to Naples filled me with a tense excitement, for Naples is particularly dear to me, in that it was there I first saw the light of day. I was received at the station by the Mayor and other city officials, and escorted to the hotel. Though I had left the city when but a lad of six, somehow the place seemed familiar and unchanged.

I delivered two speeches in Naples, one on July 14th, at the celebration in honor of the French Bastile Day, and the other on July 22nd at the celebration in honor of Belgium. The former took place in the large Piazza Plebiscita, before an audience of approximately 50,000. A delegation of numerous patriotic societies escorted me to the Piazza. Though the celebration was in honor of France, it really developed into a demonstration for America. The shouts and cheers were all for America, and when I arose to speak the crowds cheered for fully ten minutes.

My second effort was in the San Carlo Opera House in Naples, one of the largest and most beautiful opera houses in the world. The immense auditorium was filled to capacity and on the stage were gathered all the city and government officials. I was the principal speaker and, as on the former occasion, the applause turned into an ex-



pression of sincere and generous affection for America.

Naples, at the time of my arrival, was just recovering from an Austrian air raid which had caused considerable destruction. Up to the time of the raid, the people had been going about as during pre-war days with the jollity and festivity that are Naples' chief characteristics.

Departing from Naples, I travelled through all the surrounding towns and villages and addressed gatherings, generally in auditoriums, but sometimes from the top of an automobile. An intense interest and enthusiasm was shown everywhere by all those whom I addressed. This was not only true of the province of Naples, but it was true also of every place visited in southern Italy. Here, more so than in Turin, my hearers were spell-bound by the narration of America's mighty achievements since her entrance into the war.

It is customary to depict the Italian as highly emotional and more easily aroused by an appeal to his feelings than to his reason. That is true in part; but as a result of the awful reverse at Caporetto, the Italians had begun to doubt the result of the War. There were many who openly advocated a separate peace: many reasoned that it was futile to continue inasmuch as the Allies were not aiding, and as American help seemed far away. Rumors had been spread by German agents about the efficiency of the German submarines in preventing our soldiers from landing in France; of our un-

preparedness, and of the difficulties we were experiencing in getting started as well as of dissension in our acts. All of these things naturally tended to discourage the Italians but they never really believed, as had been told them, that America was bluffing. They were merely surprised that we were not doing things in proportion to our resources. It all seemed inexplicable to them, who knew America and her capability so well. But when they were told about the things we were doing, the ships we were building, the troops that were arriving in France, the vast quantities of food and materials we were sending across, the guns, the aeroplanes and other implements of war that were being produced in vast numbers, it reassured their faith in America in the victory she was bringing to them.

The thing that impressed me most of all was the sincere, unselfish love of the Italians for America which they manifested on every occasion. I have no hesitancy in saying that no nation loves and worships America more than does Italy. The gratitude of the people for the aid given by us is unbounded and everywhere I went the name of America brought forth expressions of reverence and respect.

I have on other occasions stated that there was never any need to stir up enthusiasm for America. A deep sympathy for us always existed and I might say that fully nine-tenths of the population of southern Italy recognizes America as a second fatherland. On another occasion I ran across an





AT ARMY HEADQUARTERS OF GENERAL DIAZ  
At the Front  
Hon. R. Gallenga, Under Secretary of State; Melville  
Stone, Associated Press; General Diaz, Senator Cotillo  
and others



Italian soldier who had spent a number of years in this country. During the course of our conversation he made several allusions to "his country": the man was not an American citizen, so I took it for granted that he meant Italy. Imagine my surprise when I learned he meant America. I could go on and on relating innumerable instances of the Italians' love for our country.

In September, 1918, I visited the Italian front in the company of Mr. Melville E. Stone of the Associated Press, and his Excellency, Romeo Gallenga, Under Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs. I marvelled at the tireless energy of the Italian soldiers along the mountains of the Asiago and the plains of the Upper Piave, as well as on the marshy ground near the mouth of the Piave. The feats of engineering which I witnessed were little short of miraculous. The rear lines teemed with activity; everywhere soldiers were building bridges, digging tunnels, laying telephone lines, repairing roads and, most remarkable of all, those telepheric lines which were the wonder of every visitor to the Italian front.

During my visit I attended a luncheon given to us by General Diaz, Commander-in-chief. I was sincerely charmed by the General's even manner and fluency of expression, his love for his soldiers, his great courage and self-confidence. It was at this luncheon that he expressed himself in the most glowing terms in praise of the American soldier and of America's contribution to the Allies. From what the General had

seen of the work of our boys in France and of the American boys under his command at the Italian front, he considered them the equal of any fighting men on any of the battle-fronts. He had words of particular praise for the American soldier's quick adaptability and fine fighting qualities.

If no attempt had been made by us to re-awaken and elevate the morale of the Italians, which was shaken before and after the disastrous affair of Caporetto in October, 1917, it is doubtful whether the Italians would have held together long enough to be able to withstand and defeat the Austrian blow of June, 1918. Our propaganda of enlightenment brought victory to the Allies, as surely did the successes on the battle-fields. Our propaganda served not only to stiffen the morale of the Allied peoples but also to get the truth through to the people of Germany and Austria. The collapse of Germany was due not only to military defeat, but also to the utter spiritual collapse that went on steadily behind the lines. It infested the civil populaion as well as the soldiers, for it must be remembered that, on the day the armistice was signed, Germany had two million men under arms, fully equipped and capable of conducting a defensive warfare indefinitely.

I left Italy on September 22nd, 1918, full of admiration for the unusual contributions which the military as well as the civilian population of Italy was giving so freely.

## CHAPTER II.

### THE AMERICAN RED CROSS IN ITALY

I would not consider any account of Italy during the war complete unless there were some mention of the admirable work performed by the American Red Cross in that country, under the direction of the able and efficient Colonel Robert P. Perkins. Apart from the general effectiveness of its relief work—its rehabilitation of the devastated regions, its care of the sick and destitute refugees, and its extensive work among the soldiers—the American Red Cross from the very beginning of its activity aided very successfully in creating a sentiment favorable to America, particularly at a time when various influences were working to break down the morale of the people and destroy their faith in America.

American Red Cross work in Italy commenced in November, 1917, during the great offensive at the time of the Caporetto disaster. The need for both moral and material assistance from America at this time was urgent, though the help given was confined at this time mainly to hospital and ambulance service for the hard-pressed soldiers at the front and to the refugees from the Venetian plains.

The temporary commission was made up from members of the Red Cross Commission for France. The permanent commission was appointed in the fall of 1917 and its

members arrived in Rome during the latter part of December. During the months which followed, the work of the Red Cross extended to 142 cities and thousands of smaller villages from the Alps to Sicily, according to its report. It conducted its work through sixteen district organizations, embracing all of Italy and in charge of a delegate with a staff to develop its activities in accordance with local conditions and with the principles of the American Red Cross. The district centres were as follows: Avelino, Bari, Bologna, Taormina, Florence, Genoa, Milan, Naples, Palermo, Reggio, Calabria, Rimini, Sardinia, Padua and Venice. After the armistice, other Red Cross centres were organized in the devastated territory to meet the intense need of the stricken people of that region.

Relief measures were designed to meet conditions directly created by the war, and were extended to the families of combatants and of refugees. They aimed at supporting the responsibility of the adult and at fortifying the physical and moral well being of the child. It was my privilege to see many of these activities in a number of the large cities in Italy as well as in many of the smaller towns.

I came in contact with the work in Turin during the time I was addressing large groups of workers in the various munitions factories. Institutions for the care of the children, which served the additional purpose of releasing the mothers for labor in the many war industries of Turin, seemed



to be the chief concern of the American Red Cross in this centre. It conducted several "asili," or day nurseries, of its own and in co-operation with the "comitato femminile" aided a number of others. These "asili" opened at 6:30 in the morning, half an hour before the work began in the factories, and closed at 7:30 in the evening, half an hour after the work was over. Other forms of aid were also given but this special type of activity seemed to be the chief need, as Turin was a large industrial centre during the war.

My work next called me to Rome, where the Red Cross activities centering around the Roman district came under my personal observation. There were a number of "asili" maintained for the children of soldiers who were in a weakened condition, due to the lack of proper and sufficient nourishment. I spent several days in Umbria, where special work was being done in Spalato and Perugia for delicate boys.

I then went to Naples where most of the Red Cross activities were housed at the Hotel Vittoria. In this hotel a refugee colony had been established after the Caporetto disaster, and it included over three hundred women, old men and children from the invaded provinces, who maintained their family groups and who, as rapidly as possible, were relocated in individual apartments. A day nursery, a school for young children and a work room for women engaged in making children's garments were located in the hotel building. A very large canteen for sol-

diers at the station of Naples was also maintained by the American Red Cross.

From Naples I went through the provinces of Avellino, Salerno and Benevento. Here again Red Cross activities had been organized. There were soup kitchens, "asili" and work rooms. A school for the older children was started in Avellino to keep them off the street. To provide the necessary equipment, tables, benches, shelves and other needed articles, a small carpentry shop was started where old men, formerly idle, made needed articles, and at the same time taught their trade to the young boys. A small mattress factory served a similar purpose, providing much needed articles for the refugees, many of whom slept on straw all winter. There were a number of work rooms throughout these provinces. Some which I saw personally were at Avellino, Montella, Atripalda, Monteforte, Quadrella and Baiano.

My next trip was considerably southward to Reggio, Calabria. Here, due to the local difficulties in obtaining supplies to meet the needs for nourishing food, particularly for the children, fourteen soup kitchens, serving about 15,000 food rations daily, were established in the towns of Villa San Giovanni, Reggio Cittanova, Gioiosa Superiore, and Gerace Marina. In different sections of this district there were a number of "asili" and work rooms.

From Reggio, Calabria, I went to Palermo, where I visited a number of Red Cross activities. Hotel Excelsior at Via



Libertà was Red Cross headquarters. In this building there was an unusually attractive work room with two hundred fifty women, all of them wives, sisters, or mothers of soldiers, employed in making garments and shoes. A trade school for one hundred girls was also housed in this building. The girls came in the morning at 9:30 A. M. and were taught different types of lace-making, dressmaking, hand sewing and cutting until 11:00. Then from 11:00 until noon the children were divided into three groups and received instructions in gymnastics. At noon they received hot nourishing food. In the afternoon instruction was resumed.

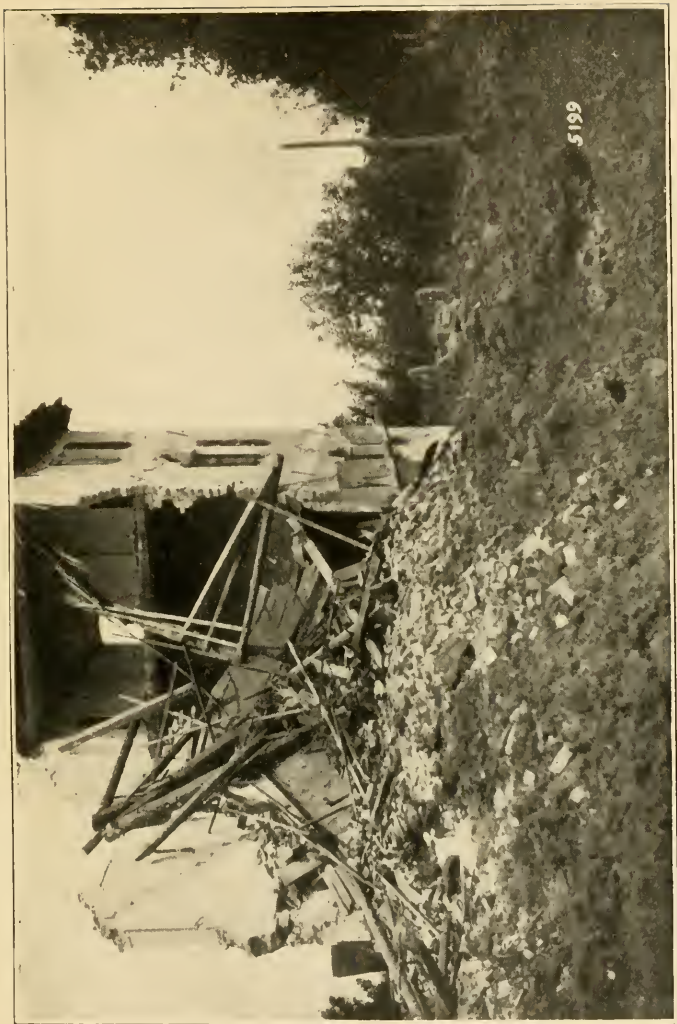
To meet the need for special care of sickly babies, a day nursery was established where one hundred thirty-two little ones, from one to five years, were nursed and nourished back to health. The building was near the sea and it had a shaded court which made it possible to keep the children in the open air in all weather. Children requiring medical attention were sent to a seashore hospital where the American Red Cross maintained a pavilion with thirty-two beds. The patients received much benefit from the sea air and sea bathing, at one of the most beautiful spots on the coast of Sicily.

A milk centre was established in a very busy part of the city which served four hundred milk rations daily for the sick, undernourished children. A number of "asili," some in Palermo and others in the suburbs, cared for over three thousand children. I

spent a very memorable hour at the Villa D'Orlean, where two hundred boys received daily instruction. The beautiful grounds which surrounded the school were unusual in their beauty. The entire group of boys sang the Star Spangled Banner in Italian and a number of them were provided with American Flags. Six little boys, in turn, made pretty speeches of welcome, with some reference to America and the help it was giving. The children asked me to carry back to America a message of thanks for all that she was doing for Italy.

Never shall I forget the very attractive open air canteen at the Station of Palermo, where meals were served to about five hundred soldiers daily. Here one lovely evening in August, under the beautiful Italian sky, I addressed about six hundred soldiers who were on their way to the front. The canteen was most artistically arranged with palms, ferns and beautiful flowers of southern Italy, which had been given by some of the wealthy citizens of Palermo. The General and his staff were present, as well as the charming Italian ladies of Palermo who, with the Red Cross workers, served at the canteen. From time to time, the military band hidden behind the palms played martial music making the picture unique in its loveliness. The spirit of the soldiers was most marked; it was full of patriotism and determination to bring about victory.

After the armistice the Red Cross brought unusual relief to those who had suffered so keenly in the devastated regions. I shall



DEVASTATED REGION—SAN DONA DI PIAVE



describe a little in detail the work which was done in the Lower Piave as I am better acquainted with it. However, work similar to this was carried on in all that wasted territory which had known such fierce warfare during the great conflict.

Those who were acquainted with the Veneto know that the rich fertility of the soil, and the unusual agricultural industry in this section was most marked before the war. For this reason, as you gazed upon the almost hopeless devastation of the fields, it required much courage, faith and imagination to believe that this devastation could be ever returned to a healthful, normal and productive state. The American Red Cross work in this section was organized in January, 1918. Headquarters for the Lower Piave were established at San Donà di Piave, a commune which bore the marked evidence of fierce warfare with its shell-torn roads, fields, trenches, and with ruined orchards and houses, here and there, with its heaps of ruins everywhere.

At Calvecchio, a small town of the commune of San Donà, was located the temporary municipio, where the Commissario Prefettizio lived with his assistant, a professor of law at the University of Padua, together with a monsignor, two other priests and an Italian officer. The house was in partial ruins but in a fair state of preservation, due to the fact that during the war it had been the headquarters of the Supreme Command of the Austrian Army of the Piave.



In a conversation with one of the Red Cross workers, she told me that she would never forget either the hospitality of these people or their appreciation for the help given them. The Red Cross first made a survey of the needs of San Donà. The hospital was in dreadful ruins, arrangements were made at once to have barracks established to be used as a hospital in order to meet the requirements of the sick and the wounded. Very often people, mostly women and children, were brought to the Red Cross workers, all torn from explosives, having met with tragic accidents in the fields where there were still hand grenades and other deadly war weapons. Later, this was somewhat remedied as the army selected a group of soldiers who understood these explosives and were able to gather them and to dispose of them in a way which caused no harm to the people.

At Calvecchia, too, a house in partial ruins was found which was occupied by the nuns. With the help of the military and municipal authorities, arrangements were made to have this building repaired for Red Cross activities. In a few days, a kitchen was built which served hot soup. A milk centre was next established: in this hundreds of milk and food portions were served daily. A school for two hundred children was opened and the necessary clothing for these almost naked and undernourished little ones was provided.

These youngsters came either from Calvecchia, or from the adjoining towns. They

were served hot soup at noon and at 3 P. M. received hot milk and biscuits. It was hard to believe that the school was in the midst of such devastation as you looked upon the children, clothed by the American Red Cross, in cleaned whitewashed rooms whose walls were decorated with instructive colored charts; notwithstanding that the building had been remade mostly from Red Cross packing boxes.

The next activity established was a work room where a number of women worked daily, receiving weekly wages and hot nourishing lunches at noon. Pillows, mattresses, sheets and clothing were made here, and articles which had been sent from America were remade so that they might meet local needs. Other activities in Calvecchia were clothing, blanket and nourishing food distribution. After the work in Calvecchia was organized the nuns were taught to carry it on.

San Donà di Piave was the centre which was next started. Here, in addition to the hospital barracks with one hundred beds and all necessary equipment for the proper functioning of the hospital, the Red Cross also gave the food stuffs and necessary equipment for an orphan asylum to care for one hundred orphans. A soup kitchen as well as a milk centre was also established. The Red Cross workers lived in the former city hospital, which was in ruins. The wings and additions were all gone and it was an open place for the windows were all out and the framework was in such ruins

that all had to be made over. A few rooms were fixed up for temporary use while the rest of the building was being torn down and piles of ruins carted away. Parts of the corridor remained which indicated the immense proportions the place once had.

Activities were next started at the Commune of Noventa, which was in an almost helpless state of devastation. It was soon discovered that aside from the great physical needs of the people there was an unusual necessity to give them courage as they seemed indeed abandoned. There was no one in the commune representing the civil authorities, and the Red Cross helped to reorganize the municipal life. It established soup kitchens, milk centres and the school in the midst of ruins and impossible surroundings.

Throughout this section of the Lower Piave the Red Cross aided about 40,000 people within three months not only with food, milk and schools, but also with blankets, clothing, shoes and other necessities. In connection with all its work, the Red Cross used as much labor and material as possible from the place itself, and trained many of the people from the different communes to carry on their established activities.

The difficulties under which the work was carried on cannot be adequately related. These were due at times to the absolute lack of essentials which were needed in order to start the activities contemplated and creation and substitution had to be devised in order to accomplish the task.



The patience and long suffering of the Italians was marked, as well as the love which they bore to their towns. Although home to them was only a heap of ruins under the cold Alpine skies of winter, and the ground only icy water, as in January, 1919, when the Piave River overflowed, they were eager to return to their own "paese" which they loved so dearly and which they hoped to restore to a healthful, productive state as soon as possible.

## CHAPTER III.

### THE ITALIAN SOLDIER

My recent mission to Italy did not concern itself with the Italian soldiers: nevertheless, I may say that, in spite of the casualness of my observation, certain qualities and traits which they possessed impressed me with an extraordinary force and compelled me to think with unrepressed admiration about these champions of freedom, so often misunderstood and misrepresented.

First and foremost, I must mention the Italian soldier's amazing capacity for enduring hardship. In my trip through Italy, when I saw the difficulties the soldiers had to contend with and the scarcity of the means at their disposal, I could not help but recognize that through all the distance, changes and foreign admixtures of two thousand years, the olive-grey clad soldier of Italy is today in point of endurance a true and genuine descendant of the tunic-clad soldier of ancient Rome. Virgil, in describing the Trojan forefathers of Rome, ascribed to them the qualities of the Romans of his day: the companions of Aeneas were men of much endurance, acquainted with suffering and sacrifice; Cicero and other Latin writers also mention as worthy of admiration the Roman campaigner's ability to stand the rigors of extreme climates and to do without the three most primary needs for physical well-being, food, drink, and sleep.



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SOME OF THE VALIANT SOLDIERS OF THE PIAVE



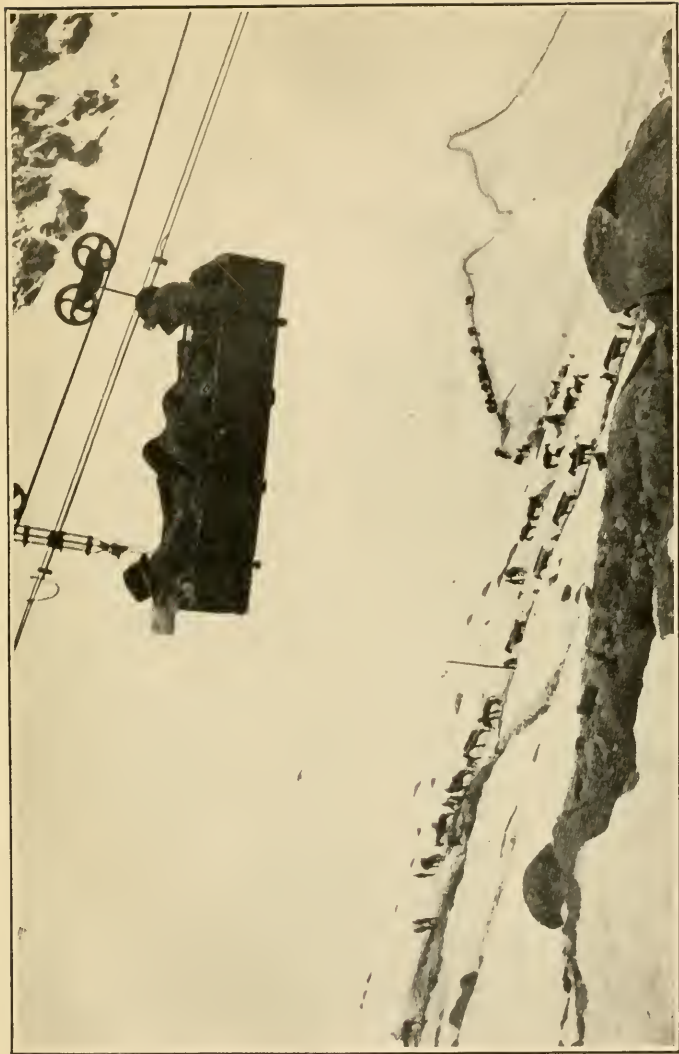
These qualities are characteristic as much of the Italian soldier of today as they were of the Roman soldier of two thousand years ago. With small rations, with insufficient equipment, with means ridiculously disproportionate to their needs, the Italians held on to the snow-clad mountain fortresses of the Northern front, where the only means of communication to the bases in the rear are aerial swaying cable lines, which join peak to peak and span dizzy chasms which swim under the eyes thousands of feet below. With never a murmur, with a disregard for physical comfort not paralleled in any other army, the Italian soldier fought, bled and died for three long years, clinging to the dusty, sun-baked, waterless slopes of the inhospitable Carso.

The fighting done by the Italian soldier in the war has been of a truly epic character. He has fought on with a fortitude and bravery seldom found in great masses of men. Just before Caporetto, particularly, the suffering of the soldiers became almost unendurable. Oftentimes their meals were a few nuts and a bit of bread. Yet, that was good enough for them: what distressed them was the news from back home where whole communities were without bread for weeks at a stretch. The soldiers' wives and children were suffering and the men were not allowed a leave of absence every four months to visit their families, as with the French. They had only a leave of ten days' absence once a year. Could it be that they were purposely kept from going home?

Under these conditions the Austrians made proffers of peace; or, as they called it, "fraternization." Italian newspapers of unmistakable pro-German leanings were counterfeited by the Austrians and these forgeries were circulated among the Italian soldiers, with the pretended news that British and French soldiers were massacring the people of the Italian cities who clamored for bread. Then suddenly, overnight, German soldiers took the place of the Austrians who had been "fraternizing" with the Italians and they were overpowered. Lack of military foresight in failing to establish a possible line of retreat created additional losses. Vast forces had to retreat and in haste. The losses in men and, especially, in guns and supplies, were staggering; for Italy lacked the great reserve of guns and supplies enjoyed by England and France.

No other nation that fought on the side of democracy had so many or so varied vexations. With patience, wisdom, fortitude and unwearied effort she overcame them all. We ought not to think all the victories are won with rifles in hand or that the only tactics that count are those of the battlefield. The Italian armies fought with magnificent courage, but all of the exploits of the army together were but the reflexes of the national will which, finding itself confronted with these disheartening obstacles, bent itself inflexibly to what it saw was the Italian task and duty.

Italy, a nation of 36,000,000 inhabitants, mobilized 4,500,000 soldiers. She made sac-



AERIAN CABLE-WAY AT 2000 METRES







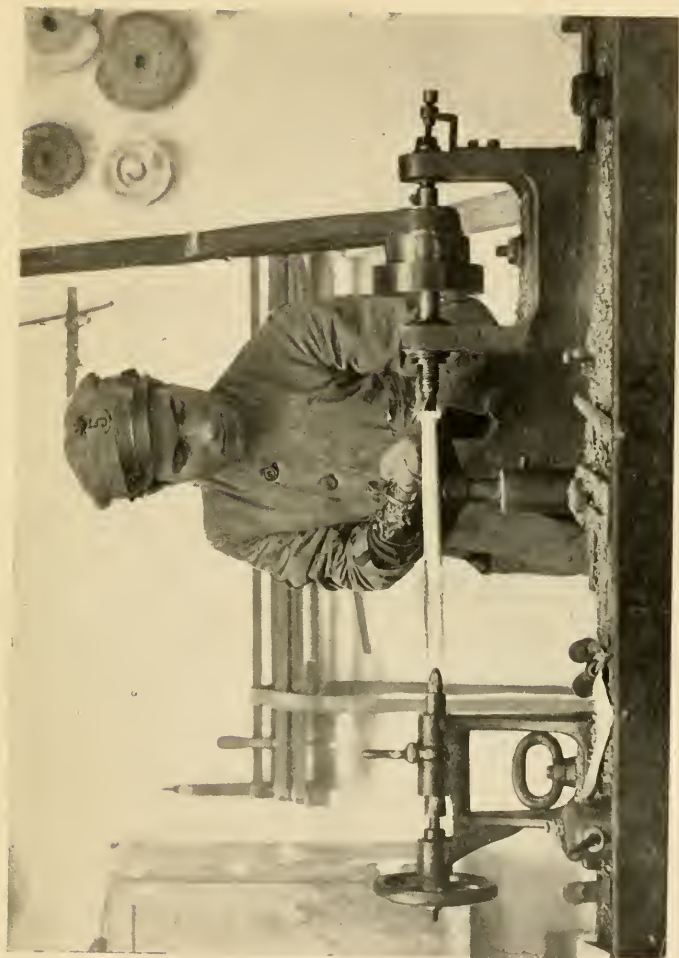
rifices and provided their equipment; with still greater sacrifices and in spite of all the coal troubles she got the shells for them to fight with. She held her own front, doing such fighting as was never seen before on this earth, carrying on war in the snows of the mountain peaks and through choked-up passes. So long as she had material and support, she advanced into Austria. She furnished 450,000 of her troops for the Macedonian and Albanian fronts, 250,000 for the French front, 60,000 for the Palestine front, 200,000 for Libya and Erythrea, and contingents for Northern Russia and Siberia.

She created, organized and operated great munition works—in spite of the coal shortage. She met the food shortage largely by volunteer effort and by the wonderful work of her great co-operative societies. She created an air-service the admiration of all experts. She organized and equipped a complete sanitary service. She met the shortage of tonnage by organizing in one year new shipping companies with a capital of 226,000,000 lire, by increasing in the sum of 264,000,000 lire the capital of existing ship companies, and by organizing and equipping nine new shipbuilding plants with a capital of 55,000,000 lire; and this without Government assistance. All the existing shipyards enlarged their facilities and increased their capital—one of them by 50,000,000 lire. She met the shortage of chemicals arising from the break with Germany, by building her own chemical works. She

developed waterpower to take the place of coal.

Her soldiers in Albania, Macedonia and France, as well as on the Alpine summits, performed their feats of daring. On the Western front they were repeatedly thanked and decorated by the French command. It was Italian divisions that saved Rheims in the dark days of May, 1918. Italian troops, although but little noticed in our press reports, had conspicuous share in the great Allied advance that began July 18. and never paused for months as Foch struck blow on blow upon the reeling German lines. At home, the Italian main army, recoiling from the Austrian offensive of May, 1916, drove the enemy out of Italy and advanced so far into Austrian territory that you might say Vienna itself was in sight, for there was nothing between the Italians and Austrian capital but a single Austrian line due to the Italian shell shortage. For many months, when the Russian collapse had released an Austrian army of overwhelming strength, the Italians hung like a bulldog to their defenses and kept the Austrians from the Venetian plains and a deadly rearward blow at France.

With an acute shortage of food throughout the kingdom, with an army greatly diminished in numbers and the extreme difficulty caused by the enemy's seizure of a large percentage of their weapons, the Italian soldier, nevertheless, held firm against an enemy enriched by these captures, superior in numbers and flushed with



ONE OF ITALY'S MANY MUTILATI



victory. The fact that, in spite of these terrible handicaps, the men of Italy by desperate valor were able to stop the barbarian onslaught in the Fall of 1917, and thereby save the Allied cause, is a page of imperishable glory added to a history of Italian arms already luminous.

The cause of the free people of the earth never hung by such a fine thread as during the days of the second half of October, 1917. What was it that saved the world during those critical days? It was the power of self-sacrifice to the uttermost of whole regiments of Italy's sons. The twice famous Piave bears witness to this fact. With a blind fury, a heroism arising out of their painful consciousness of the critical situation, Italy's manhood stood firm at the Piave after the disastrous retreat from Caporetto and the best of Italy's cavalry regiments rushed upon the enemy to certain death in order to stay his advance. With hardly anything but their naked bayonets, a brigade of bersaglieri annihilated or captured an entire brigade that had set foot across the Piave. With a human wall of sheer devotion and heroism they held their lines.

It has been said that this checking of the Caporetto rout, for rout it was, was a miracle. If by a miracle we mean the turning of an irresistible tide by forces entirely outside the realms of the physical, coming from the inmost recesses of a people's soul, then the resistance at the Piave was a miracle, just as the Battle of the Marne was a miracle.

But the two wonders had this difference, the Germans at the Marne were being threatened by an invasion of northern Prussia, while at the Piave, the Germans, far from suffering any threat against their northern frontiers, were safely installed at Riga.

The first battle of the Piave was one of the great military marvels of the war. The Italian Army, utterly defeated, with nearly all its artillery and ammunition abandoned, its transportation destroyed, its morale utterly shaken, with stories of treachery being spread broadcast by its enemies—this army, almost literally bareheaded and sometimes fighting knee-deep in snow, stopped and held the Austro-German army. It was at this point that the historic phrase, “*di qui non si passa*,” was coined. “Monte Grappa” is to the Italian what “Verdun” is to the French. That the Italians fought hard is proven by the fact that their losses the first day were 29,000 killed and wounded, while for a month and a half their daily losses ran from 9,000 to 12,000.

It has also been suggested that the Piave line was held by reason of Franco-British reinforcements that came to the aid of Italy. Far be it from me to depreciate the aid given by England and France at that time, but the truth is that these reinforcements arrived when the tide had already been stemmed. The Franco-British reinforcements no doubt helped to relieve the tension, but when they reached the front the stabilization of the Piave line had already taken place.





UNLOADING OF MUNITIONS AT 2800 METRES





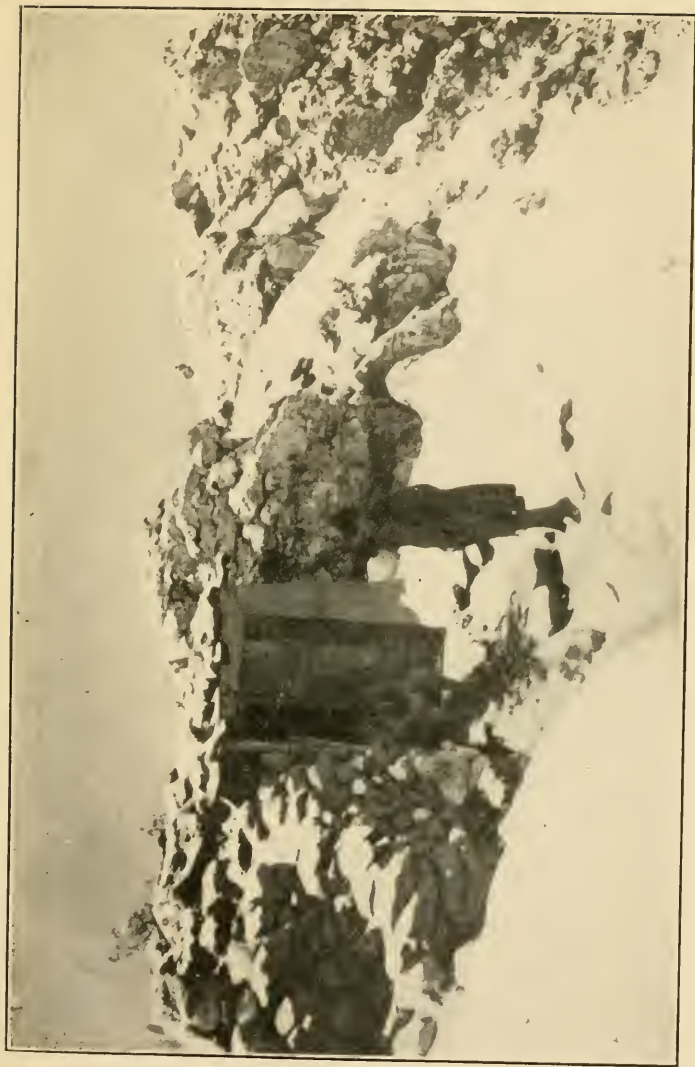
Let me say emphatically that the drive was checked on the line of the Piave, Monte Grappa and the Asiago, entirely by the Italians before a single French or British soldier arrived in Italy. The 100,000 French who were sent to Italy's aid were stationed, on their arrival, at Padova, behind the Italian lines. This was quite proper, as at that time no one knew how far the enemy propaganda had succeeded in disorganizing the Italian armies, or if, and where, another collapse would take place. The French and British were held in reserve to be thrown into the line in case weakness developed at any point. Such weakness did not develop and the battle was over in the middle of December when seven feet of snow in the mountains made further fighting impossible. Later, the British and French troops took their positions in the line to relieve exhausted Italians.

The acts of valor which immortalized the Piave, both in October of 1917 and in June of 1918, would fill volumes. In October, 1917, as the Italians were nearing the Piave, a battalion became separated from its regiment. It was isolated and encircled by overwhelmingly superior forces. As long as ammunition lasted the battalion held its ground to a man. When their ammunition was exhausted the men still held grimly, knowing that unless help came from some source they must surrender or die. They preferred to die. Just then, a man presented himself to the commanding officer of the battalion and, with tears in his eyes,

begged to be permitted to attempt alone to run the gauntlet of the enemy's lines in an effort to reach the rest of the regiment and summon help. This volunteer was strapped to a horse's belly and sent through the lines. He succeeded but when reinforcements finally came it was too late. A small remnant of the battalion had cut a passage through the foe but the bulk of the battalion, including its commander, lay dead on the field of honor.

During the second battle of the Piave, the enemy had succeeded in reaching the Italian lines. The Austrians occupied part of the railroad leading from Montello to Treviso, the northern and southern ends remaining in Italian hands. After the middle portion of the railroad had passed into Austrian control a message from the Italian forces holding the extreme end of the Montello reached headquarters; their ammunition was running low whereas success depended upon the unceasing fire of the batteries at the end of the lines. What was to be done? The only means of sending ammunition quickly and in sufficient quantity was the railway line itself. Part of it was occupied by the enemy.

General Fadini, commanding the artillery, at once ordered a train to be got ready, while meantime battle-planes were ordered to fly over the line to observe if it was still intact. The aviators reported that they could see no obstruction. At once a single locomotive was rushed off helter-skelter, escorted by battle and bombing planes.



A TELEPHONE STATION AT 2900 METRES



After a giddy race it reached Montebelluna safely and word was sent back by telephone that the line was still practicable. A large convoy of forty cars, loaded with ammunition and bristling with machine guns, was then sent headlong towards the enemy. It burst through the Austrian lines, spreading death in its passage. The fire from all kinds of enemy guns, a single hit from which would have sufficed to explode the entire train, was directed upon it all in vain. The convoy reached the exhausted batteries, the Italian cannon belched forth fire and destruction with renewed vigor, and the day was won.

General Sante Ceccherini, commanding the Third Brigade of Bersaglieri, is a hero in the fullest sense of the word. He has been decorated five times with the military medal; he has been awarded the Italian, French, English and Serbian war-cross; he is a cavalier of the Crown of Italy and numbers five campaigns to his credit. During the early days of June, 1916, he commanded, on the San Michel, two battalions of cyclist bersaglieri. At that time he was a Lieutenant Colonel. Having reached the top of the mountain, he saw about him but 150 men and five officers out of the 900 men and eighteen officers with whom he started the attack. Two Austrian brigades surrounded him—12,000 men. Erect on the edge of the trench, encouraging and setting an example to his men, smiling in the midst of the hellish artillery, musketry and machine-gun fire, he quietly smoked his strong-smelling



pipe, "the Colonel's gurgly old stem," as his men called it. Realizing that the position was untenable he would not surrender he gathered his men about him and hacked a way through the surrounding foe with flashing bayonets.

Enrico Toli was another bersaglieri hero. This young Roman had lost his leg as a youth, but by prodigious strength and spirit he so far overcame his handicap that his feats as cyclist, globe-trotter, and swimmer were epic. At the beginning of the war, he succeeded in convincing the army officials that he could take a soldier's part. With his bicycle he kept up with the best of them, and his crutch became a formidable weapon. His invincible spirits made him a leader. During an attack he rushed to the attack mortally wounded but undaunted he reached the Austrian trenches. He fell but rose again, and with a supreme gesture of contempt hurled his crutch after the fleeing enemy, shouting "Viva L'Italia" as he fell back, dead, into the trench.

Lieutenant Franz Frischietti was fourteen years old at the beginning of the war—too young for service. With the aid of a birth certificate belonging to an older brother who had died as a child and would then have been seventeen years old, managed to enlist. Possessing physical strength far beyond his years he had no difficulty so far as personal appearance was concerned. He always conducted himself well and by his gallantry attained the grade of first lieutenant. When his class was called to the colors



THE ALPINE SOLDIERS IN THE ALPS





—the class of 1900—he had to reveal his identity, for he had been listed as a deserter, although he had been fighting for over three years. He fell fighting at the head of a company of shock troops.

Lieutenant Tozzolino had his right hand paralyzed by a wound, but he stayed at the front for the purpose of propaganda. During the Battle of the Piave, he managed to reach a battalion which was conducting an attack against the enemy. The Major in command being killed, the men showed signs of indecision, beginning to retreat. Lieutenant Tozzolino placed himself at their head, led them back to the attack and reconquered the position.

Sergeant Crespi of the 16th Bersaglieri, having played a brilliant part in the capture of a difficult mountain position, ran out repeatedly, braving murderous fire of enemy machine guns one hundred meters away, leaping over chasms and ravines, in order to bring back to safety five wounded comrades.

The warfare which was waged in the Alps is full of deeds of heroism similar to those which I have mentioned. Here the Alpini fought at altitudes ranging from seven to ten thousand feet, having fought the mountains and the elements as fiercely and patiently as they fought the Austrians. Snowstorms were frequent and the cold was intense. The ascents would have puzzled all but experienced Alpinists who knew how to crawl up walls like flies, clinging to every crack with finger tips, wriggling up sheer

smooth faces of rock with never a nook or cranny for a foothold, jerking a rope over some distant crag and climbing up to it with true Simian agility, regardless of bottomless pits below. I often marvelled over the exploits of Alpine acrobats who conquer incredible cliffs for sport, but these Italian soldiers were hindered with heavy packs, guns, picks, telephone wires and other impediments that would worry them even on the flat. And they were exposed to the enemy's fire all the way up; while at the summit they found no sort of cover against an immediate bombardment.

They had not a moment's respite after the superhuman climb. With shells bursting about their ears, they instantly seized their axes and turned the scanty mountain vegetation into huts or slender shelters, wrestling with rocks if there were any chance of forming some apology for trenches. In rare intervals of leisure, still under fierce fire, they could be seen hacking down trees and flinging them to distant torrents to be polished against stones and turned into furniture, field hospitals and crosses for soldiers' graves.

The Italians admit no rivalry in the art of Alpine warfare. Look at the giant rocks, look as long as you like through your telescope, and you will discern naught but crags and snow, not a crack till you crawl along a little path over the abyss and come suddenly upon the entrance to a tunnel. It is just an open doorway, and all is darkness within. Grope your way, a long, long way; and there



THE ALPINI



are glimmers of light down cross corridors to right or left; at last you come to a little window which reveals the enemy's positions on the mountains opposite. The loopholes are only just large enough to admit of taking aim, and the gunners are far safer than in any fortress. At the back is a whole system of covered passages and trenches of communications with deep galleries for artillery.

First there was a long period of silent preparation. The Austrians were lulled into a sense of false security. Then came a violent attack with much hand to hand fighting on the rocky chains. Men hurled one another down precipices or dived headlong in frantic embraces. The Austrians were driven further and further up the hills. At last they were exterminated or taken prisoner, for when an Italian soldier attacks a mountain, he sticks to it with bull-dog tenacity and never leaves it until it is his. No labor is too arduous for him, no peak inaccessible. When there is no other way, he will devote months to constructing broad, smooth, Napoleonic roads right up the high mountains, replacing the roughest mule-paths. You may see one of thirty miles to an outpost 7,475 feet above the sea, an armoured road with parapets behind which an army can ascend in safety. The peaceful Alps now retain a wonderful network of roads as their inheritance, and the redeemed provinces may have reason to bless their conquerors.

On the Carso the struggle was perhaps

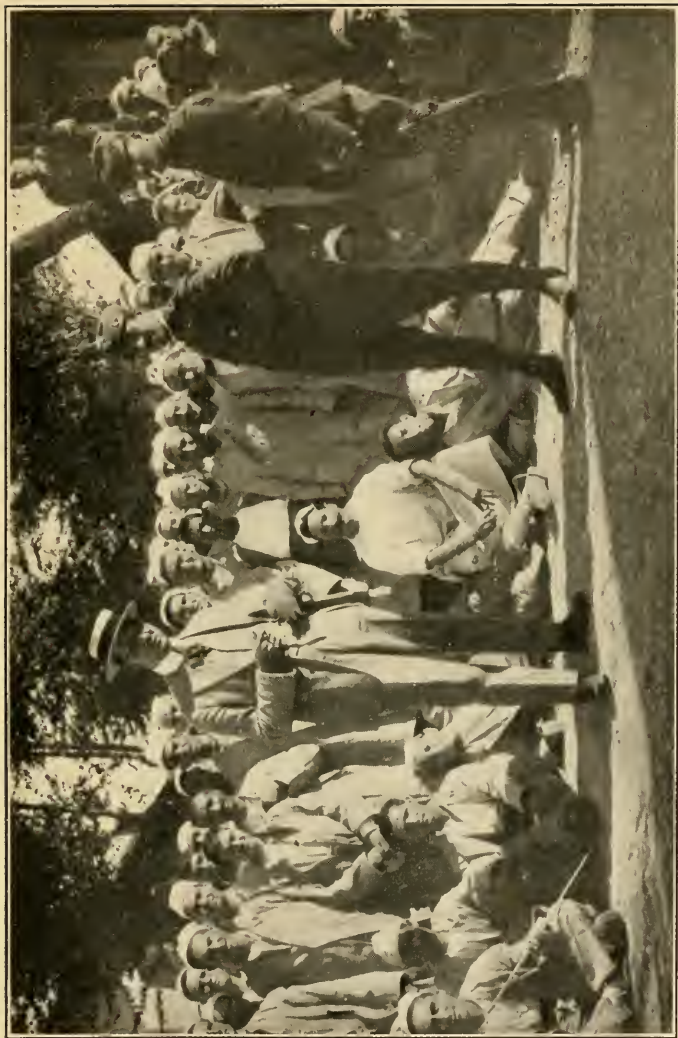


even harder than that on the mountains, new positions conquered had to be defended with trenches, the excavation of which, in any depth, was sorely impeded by the stony soil of this region. For the Carso was scourged by slashing rain, frozen by the northern piercing winds that blew across the Adriatic. The second lines encountered further difficulties owing to the nature of the ground which was entirely open to the enemy's sight and fire. The only protections possible were found in sundry large hollows called "doline," in which excavation was possible for some shelter.

These conditions of defense were entrusted to the brave ever-watchful troops who on the Carso stood gallantly to their posts, living in all but frozen pools. The soldiers struggled ceaselessly with snow and mist and frost, with never a ray of sun. And behind the first lines other troops were not less busy in ceaseless labour. The maintenance of such huge forces was indeed grave, and cruel daily hardships told their tale; many thousands were invalided every month and the Italian army suffered through these losses, just as much as if it had gone through a great offensive—which, in fact, it was, an offensive against the elements.

In February, 1916, the enemy troops were intensely combative east of Gorizia, striving to regain the positions they had lost. But their activity was more than outweighed by successful counter attacks which were made by the Italians on the Carso and on the highlands of Costabella near the Monte Marmo-





SENATOR CUTILLO  
With a group  
of Tubercular Italian Soldiers who had  
been Austrian Prisoners



lada. All new positions conquered by the Italians in 1916 were held, and from the highest peaks to the marshlands south of Monfalcone a formidable activity was maintained.

Italy's sacrifices have been staggering. From the beginning of the war Italy called to arms little less than five and a half million of men. The triumphant result of her fighting was achieved at the cost of these terrible losses: 460,000 killed in action; 947,000 wounded, 568,500 permanently disabled through the loss of hands, arms or legs; and 1500 totally blind. Her total casualties were 1,977,000.

In three years of war, in furious offensives on the Isonzo, on the Alps, or on the Piave, in continuous obstinate hand-to-hand combats all along the chain of forbiddingly rugged mountains, thousands from the enemy were captured. Of this obscure warfare, fought without respite by the Italian army, not only against men, but also against the elements and the difficulties encountered in the nature of the ground, a part of the soldiers' task was the laying out of 1500 kilometers of telephonic cable and 3,500 kilometers of traffic road across the impervious chain of mountains.

The painful intensity of the sacrifices and the supreme military effort of the Italian army were unusual. The opportunity to prove our understanding to Italy should not be lost, especially now when that heroic country is bravely striving to recover from the terrible disaster of war and invasion.

## CHAPTER IV.

### THE ITALIAN NAVY

In regard to the modern Italian Navy and its makers we are told that long before Great Britain possessed an official Royal Navy, Italian Shipbuilders were world renowned, and that when Henry VIII began to lay the foundations of the British Navy, as we now know it, he invited the Italian ship constructors to England to give him the benefit of their experience and advice.

The Italian naval constructors were also among the first to adopt the new device of armor more than sixty years ago. They have ever since been in the fore-front and in many cases, indeed, actual pioneers in the matter of design.

Benedetto Brin and Colonel Cuniberti are, perhaps, the two most eminent figures of the distinguished school of naval architects, which has brought the modern Navy to its present strength. Under the guidance of these two original thinkers, Italian naval construction has always maintained, in spite of financial difficulties and shortage of coal and iron, an extremely high standard as to both workmanship and design.

In the matter of the combination of heavy armament with great speed, Italy may be said to have been almost the first in the field. As long ago as 1877-1878, she had battle-ships 400 feet in length, with estimated speed of 18 knots. These ships were built

at a time when the largest British vessel was 320 feet in length, with an estimated speed of only 14 knots.

In 1909, Italy had 11 modern battleships afloat, 10 armored cruisers, 17 destroyers, 125 torpedo boats and 6 submarines. She spent annually upon her navy five and one-half million pounds. No account of her naval development would be complete without a reference to Guglielmo Marconi, who first gave the world wireless telegraphy in practical and commercial form, the introduction of which into navies has had such a profound effect upon modern naval tactics.

For naval purposes the country is divided into three maritime zones, administered respectively from Spezia, Naples and Venice, with secondary naval stations at various strategic points, such as Taranto and Brindisi.

In regard to its personnel, the Italian Navy has always had splendid material in its maritime population. The seamen are recruited by conscription but the public officers are trained from early youth and form the whole life force.

The coming of the Italian battleship, "Conte di Cavour," to America was an event which stimulated lively interest, as it was a forceful reminder of the silent and heroic work performed by the Allied navies during the recent struggle, in keeping open the lanes of the seven seas.

The first phase of the Italian naval intervention is described as a series of raids and counter-raids. Then followed the rapid

and ingenious development of coast defenses and the establishment of effective patrols.

It was chiefly through the almost miraculous efforts of the Italian Navy that, in December of 1915 and January of 1916, the Serbian Army was rescued from almost total annihilation. It was the Italian Navy that picked up the routed Serbians, driven towards Albania by General Von Mackensen, and carried them to safety to Italy across the water of the Adriatic, which was infested by the enemy with every conceivable weapon of destruction.

The Italian battleship, "Conte di Cavour," had no little share in the trying and difficult ordeal of delivering the broken remnant of the Serbians from the clutches of the victorious Teutons as well as from actual starvation. The organization of the Italian fleet on that memorable occasion was as nearly perfect as anything could possibly be, and the work of rescue proceeded with as much celerity and as little loss as could be hoped for, under such perilous and trying circumstances.

The number of Serbians thus saved was no less than 138,000, belonging to the Infantry Corps in addition to 11,000 refugees, mostly sick and disabled. No less than 87 crossings were made to carry them all in safety to the Italian shore. The Italian Navy also carried to Corfu, 10,000 horses and 13,000 cavalrymen, making 13 crossings from Vallona in the course of a few days. The enemy strove with every means to ham-





ITALIAN SAILORS





per this feverish movement of Italian ships and soldiers, employing at least thirteen submarines in an unsuccessful attempt to defeat the purposes of the Italian maneuvers.

Some of the most brilliant achievements of the war, achievements worthy of being ranked with the best deeds of daring and cool judgment to be found in naval history were performed by Italian naval officers. To record all of these would be beyond the scope of this writing, but a few are so conspicuous as to be worthy of special mention.

In December, 1917, Commander Rizzo succeeded in entering the closely guarded harbor of Trieste in a small motor launch, and torpedoed the Austrian battleship "Wien," and then made good his escape.

The following June, the submerged obstructions and the mobile barrage (to which had just been added two squadrons of American 110-ft. submarine chasers) had become so effective that the Austrians determined on a raid in force to clear the Straits. The Austrian superdreadnoughts left Pola on the night of the 15th of June, 1918, with the intention of making a rendezvous with the Austrian fleet off Cattaro, whence the combined forces would proceed with the attack. Commander Rizzo in a small sixteen-meter motor boat, accompanied by Lieutenant-Commander Aonzo with a similar motor boat, had been reconnoitering among the Dalmatian Islands. Motor trouble had delayed them, and they found themselves in the middle of the Adriatic just before dawn.

Two large columns of smoke were observed, and Commander Rizzo, knowing that no large Italian vessels were in those waters, accurately assumed that the smoke came from major enemy units, and without hesitation proceeded to the attack. These little Italian launches carried two eighteen-inch torpedoes on racks which could be rigged outboard. They had a speed of twenty-four knots. On approaching Rizzo made out two large battleships convoyed by numerous destroyers (subsequently known to be ten in number). By skillful manoeuvring and proceeding at a low speed he succeeded in getting through the escorts of destroyers, and when within two hundred yards of the leading battleship, the *St. Stephen*, he launched both of his torpedoes, scoring two hits and having the satisfaction of seeing the target ship give a great lurch and start to settle immediately. She sank in a few minutes. Rizzo immediately turned and headed away at full speed, pursued by the destroyers who had picked him up with their searchlights and opened fire. Making a neat calculation of the speed and distance of the nearest pursuer, Rizzo set a depth charge and dropped it in the destroyer's path. So nicely was it timed that it exploded directly under the bow of the destroyer, thus ending the chase. It was reported that the destroyer sank. Meanwhile, Lieutenant-Commander Aonzo, in the second launch, proceeded to the attack of the remaining battleship. When two hundred yards from his target he fired both torpe-

does. Unfortunately, one stuck slightly in the releasing gear. The second struck the battleship amidships, penetrating her, but, as luck would have, failed to explode. Both Aonzo and Rizzo succeeded in making their escape and returned to Ancona.

The news of this brilliant exploit reached the world about the time the Americans at Chateau-Thierry were writing a new chapter in history, and the Italian army was hurling back the Austrian on the Piave in ignominious defeat. Consequently, I am afraid that Rizzo's achievement is not as well known and recognized as it deserves to be. Coupled with the magnificent victory of the second Battle of the Piave, it served enormously to hearten the Italians. Its depressing effect on the Austrians was correspondingly great. An eye witness gave a graphic description of the scene in the Austrian Admiralty in Vienna when the news of the disaster was received. The Austrians were open and violent in their denunciations of the Germans, for it seems that the whole plan for the attack on Otranto originated with the Germans, and the Austrians were forced into it against their better judgment. Admiral Horthy, commanding the Austrian fleet, was particularly opposed to the attempt, as he knew that the Italian scouts were so active that secrecy would be impossible, and the element of surprise was counted on to carry the effort through. Of course, with the sinking of the *St. Stephen* and the disabling of the other battleship, the whole attack was called off. Thus Rizzo by his

skill and daring not only destroyed the newest and strongest unit in the Austrian fleet, but undoubtedly saved many Allied vessels and lives as well.

Another naval feat that history will not fail to record is the sinking of the "Viribus Unitis." This dreadnought was sunk in the night of October 31, 1918, and the expedition was led by Captain Costanzo Ciano. Other members of the daring party were Sem Benelli, poet and soldier, author of "The Jest" and "The Love of the Three Kings"; Captain Paolucci, surgeon in the Italian Navy, and Colonel Rossetti, naval constructor.

Captain Paolucci wrote the story of the expedition and it may be interesting to quote a few sentences from his thrilling account. Describing the entrance into the waters of Pola, he says: "At half past ten, we hit against the outer obstruction, which was formed by a network of floating metallic cylinders more than three yards in length. This held submerged under the surface of the sea a wall of heavy steel wires over two yards in height. Holding on to the boat with one hand and to the cylinders with the other, we pushed our way through with the motor at a standstill. But we soon perceived that we were unable to make any headway in this manner and realized the danger of getting in too late. We, therefore, decided to run the motor at low speed and to help ourselves with our arms in removing the obstruction, succeeding at last in passing through. In a little while we

found ourselves at the gate of the mighty port, and as no further obstructions had been met on the way, we concluded that some of the floating cylinders had fallen into the sea.

"At this point, Colonel Rossetti grabbed me by the arm and pointed out to me a black mass, none too far away, which seemed to advance towards us. We stopped diving into the water as much as possible and very clearly distinguished the turret of a submarine, which approached us. Suspecting that we might have been found out, we at once got ready to fire the torpedoes and destroy the enemy boat, but, fortunately, the black mass passed on at about fifty yards from us and disappeared.

"When at last we reached the wharf, a solid mass of cement, we thought it advisable for one of us to swim forward and make an inspection. We wanted to ascertain whether the edge of the mole was constructed with a line of straight, even blocks, which would completely hide our boat, or with loose piles, in which case we should be compelled to keep at a certain distance, thus leaving us exposed to the possible observations of the sentinels on guard. I was the one selected for the inspection and, sticking my head up, I was delighted to find that the wharf was constructed just as we had wished, assuring us a safe hiding place while seeking out the object of our attack."

Coming to the crucial point where the little torpedo boat made ready to strike the



pre-ordained blow, Captain Paolucci concludes as follows:

“The order of the Austrian ships at anchor in the port from one end to the other was as follows: “Eadetzky,” “Erzherzog,” “Franc Ferdinand,” “Zriny,” “Prinz Eugene Togethof,” “Viribus Unitis.” We steered towards the largest ship with the intention of attacking two of them, and we floated, with a certain swiftness, along the row of ships, always keeping as far as possible from them. The “Eadetzky” was quite darkened but the “Viribus,” which was further, was lit up with white lights. We were proceeding rather speedily, under the rain, which was pouring down in torrents, when I noticed that our boat was sinking. We discovered the immersion valve at the stern was open and we at once closed it, rising to the surface.

“Out of the trying moments we had spent, this was undeniably the most painful. We went on our way again, but it seemed as though we should never arrive. Half past three and four o’clock had already past; we were not yet at the level of the “Viribus Unitis,” where we arrived only at a quarter past four. The stream was still running out. We thought then we might place ourselves along it at a hundred yards from the prows of the “Viribus” and there stop the machine, submerge as much as possible and let ourselves be smoothly carried along by the current. But the stream took us out of our way and we had to begin afresh. We finally got within twenty yards of the “Viri-



bus Unitis." I should have swam under the dreadnought, so as to fix the torpedo, according to the plans already arranged by the Commander, but Colonel Rossetti mentioned to me that he wished to go himself, and I obeyed, recognizing his greater experience and knowledge.

"When Rossetti left me, it was ten minutes to five and I ought to have waited for him at a few yards' distance, cruising further out. But the stream took me away and carried me to a place where another small man-of-war was at anchor and I turned the machine around. I made the most desperate efforts to right it again but I failed in this and was about to run the risk of knocking up against the ship when I finally succeeded in giving the boat a proper direction, and, setting the motor in motion, I slowly moved toward the "Viribus." It was a quarter past five. Fully twenty minutes had passed since I had left Rossetti. Would he be discovered and taken a prisoner on the "Viribus"? In such case I should have noticed some light, heard a human voice or a signal of alarm. But nothing of the kind was heard. Meanwhile the alarm bell on the Admiral's ship was ringing loudly. I saw men going and coming on board the dreadnought, but they did not see me because I was in the dark and they were in the light.

"But in the distance the first dawning was breaking. At the same time the strong current almost capsized our boat, but, after desperate efforts, I succeeded in steering straight for the "Viribus." It was twenty-

five minutes to six, and I was still anxiously watching for Rossetti. But, just as I was moving against the side of the dreadnought, I saw a floating face. It was Rossetti coming up above the surface. My heart had never experienced a greater joy. Suddenly from the main tower of the "Viribus" a reflector flashed its light upon us. We had been discovered."

The story concludes with an account of the bombing of the ship, which went to pieces in an instant, and thus another monster against civilization was sunk.

While the Austrian fleet limited its activities to attacking brutally the undefended towns of the Adriatic coast, the Italian fleet had the twofold task of maintaining control of the Adriatic and of patrolling the Mediterranean, at whose ports more than eight hundred ships were discharging weekly. Eight hundred kilometres of coast to defend against the enemy, who possessed the best and safest harbors of the Adriatic; this was the tremendous task of the Italian fleet, the same fleet which went through the Dardanelles under fire and subdued the Turkish resistance in the Libyan War.

But the difficult and dangerous mission of defending the two seas could not quench the thirst of the Italian Navy for daring deeds, in its laudable ambition to defeat every incipient plan of the enemy directed against the operations of the Allied ships. To the adventurous spirit of the Italian sailors, the mere duty of patrolling seas seemed an utterly uninteresting office. They voiced their

feelings by repeating the famous expression of their leading Commanders: "Should these ships be mere sentinels, when they were built with our best energies for the accomplishment of heroic deeds?"

They were very happy, when, on a cloudy morning, early in 1916, they surprised and frightened the Austrians by a sudden raid on Trieste, Fiume, and Durazzo. It was the daring feat, in which they knew they were risking their lives, but only such undertakings satisfied their spirit of adventure and patriotic sentiment. On May 8th and 12th of the same year an audacious attack was made on Parenzo and Pola, the great Austrian fortresses, defended by no less than three hundred guns.

In December, 1917, two small torpedo boats entered the port of Trieste and sank the dreadnought "Wien." The echo of the sinking of the "Wien" and the "Viribus Unitis" and the "Jest of Buccari" had barely died out, when Commander Pellegrini, with legendary audacity, sunk the "Szent Istvan" and damaged another dreadnought. With his two small torpedo boats and fourteen men he had accomplished what an entire fleet could hardly do in open battle. Surely the Lion of St. Mark must have watched with delight the sons of the Third Italy, as worthy keepers of the best Italian traditions under the glorious rule of the Roman and the Venetian Republics.

The part of the "Conte di Cavour" in the World War will never be forgotten. It was

this most powerful dreadnought, commanded by able officer and a determined crew, that many a time threw its challenge to the enemy battleships that were safely anchored in the protected harbors of the Dalmatian and Istrian coasts. When it failed to bring them out into the open it helped the Army by bombarding from the sea rear and flanks of enemy positions along the coastal zones, backing up the actions of the English and Italian monitors.

The "Conte di Cavour," together with other Italian dreadnoughts, gave valuable aid to the Army by replenishing its batteries with the ship's own equipment, mounted on special pontoons for action in the marshy zones of Venetia, such as the lagoons of Crado, Monfalcone and Venice. Other long distance batteries were also mounted by the sailors on some of the Alpine heights. Finally, the marine battalions, first on the Piave line, and elsewhere, took a leading part in erecting the impregnable human barrier which saved Venice, the Queen of the Sea, from probable invasions and pillage.

Italy lost 61 ships in her naval operations; namely, five battleships, six auxiliary cruisers, six torpedo boats, nine submarines, eight destroyers, eight cruisers, four mine drags and other miscellaneous ships. She suffered, thus, a loss of over half of her merchant marine. The advance of Italy in trade with the world in imports and exports had so increased up to the time of the war that

her merchant marine expanded to a great extent.

The official figures are as follows:

	Total Tonnage Merchant Ships	Lost	Per Cent
England .....	18,356,000	7,825,598	42.63
France .....	2,300,000	908,068	39.44
Italy .....	1,530,000	880,000	57.52

## CHAPTER V.

### ITALIAN WOMEN DURING THE WAR

To the women of Italy, the war brought a tremendous task for which they were totally unprepared. Throughout history their lives had been, as a rule, sheltered for the necessity of work different from that of the care of the home had hardly ever presented itself.

During the war they were suddenly thrown into work in factories and offices, as well as in hospitals and asylums. The Italian women emerged unusually successfully from this great task. They were clever and adaptable, and the women of the world have great reason to feel proud of the contribution of the Italian women to the war.

It is only to those who know how the Italian women hated to assume the duties and privileges of the other sex that there can come a fair realization of the wonder that it has been. Thousands and thousands of women left their household cares to enter the industrial field though during the pre-war days no amount of coercion could have induced them to enter that sort of work which seemed to their mind particularly fit for men.

Among the allied nations, Italy in normal times has always been the one least given to employing women in the industrial field. For this reason it is remarkable that in May, 1917, the number of Italian women





PIERCING HOLES



WOMEN MAKING THREE INCHES (75MM)  
and two and one-half inches (65 mm) cast iron shells





taking the place of men in war work amounted to 120,000 and grew steadily during the war. The number of women wage-earners grew from the 2,500,000 of pre-war days to 5,000,000.

Women in large numbers were employed as street sweepers, street-car conductors and railroad ticket agents, though the greatest work contributed by women was along the lines of agricultural, munition work and nursing.

In Italy, where the women of the peasantry have always given a great deal of help to agriculture, it was, perhaps, not surprising that the burden of farming fell entirely upon the women and that they became the food producers of the nation. From 1916 to 1918, the women had to do most of the work of the fields, and it was a stupendous task. In Lombardy they saved the silk worm industry. In the South, the results of their efforts gave to Puglia a better harvest in 1916-1917 than had been reaped in the preceding year.

Woman's contribution to the munition industry during the war was most marked. The number of women employed in the munition factories grew from 1,760 in 1914 to over 300,000 in 1918. Their work was reported as efficient, accurate and reliable. In fact, the records of the Arms and Munitions Department show plainly that the technicality, the exactness of execution and the promptness in learning displayed by women in war work of any kind have surpassed all praise.

Since the month of May, 1915, at the very beginning of Italy's mobilization, the women were called to service in the street-cars. later on the women began to serve on the state railroads, in the telegraph service, in public and private bureaus with almost uniform efficiency. They did excellent work also in the humble but important work of cleaning the streets. Never before were the streets of Naples, Rome and Turin cleaner.

The War Department was able to substitute women for many soldiers employed in writing, cooking and laundry, in preparing biscuits and bread and in clothing stores. The Italian housewife, true to her traditional thrift and her culinary ability, helped tremendously with the food situation. Since the beginning of the war, Italy had been rationing herself with extreme severity, preventing much waste of food. The women not only accepted any sacrifice with high spirit, but also tried to convert the economies made necessary by the war to the financial advantage of their families.

Italian women realized at once after Italy's entrance into the war that they could furnish invaluable service to the soldiers in the field. This service they performed with loving devotion, inspired by maternal sentiment, so that the soldiers came to be, in a sense, a vast family under their care. Knitting and needle work became so general and was pursued with such zeal that it became necessary to organize these willing workers in order to co-ordinate their efforts and make them most efficient. Actual work



IN THE FITTING SHOP



rooms were established everywhere, taking contracts for army furnishings and employing thousands of wives and relatives of the fighting men at a scale of wages that was a welcome addition to the scanty allowance that the soldiers' families received from the Government.

Another valuable movement initiated by the women was the organizing of the telephone girls, whose work had become superfluous, and employing them for the making of garments. The first of these organizations was established in Milan, and the example followed in Genoa, Sienna, Bologna, Naples, and Florence. In such cities as Palermo, Legnamo, Messina and Como, telephone operators received permission from their employers to alternate their telephone work with that of making clothing. Similar action was taken by teachers.

The problem of giving civil and material assistance to the families of soldiers was mainly solved by the Government through assigning the making of military clothing to the very same women whose brothers or husbands were fighting at the front. The direction of these workshops was under volunteer workers. It meant the handling of enormous business and a financial management of millions, but the women who took such responsibilities discharged their duties well. Half a million working women were given employment.

In the war zone a great quantity of women found employment in the army laundries, while in the mountain territory women were

found very efficient and satisfactory agents in keeping the roads clear from snow and in carrying loads of war material and food to the soldiers up in the mountains. In the rear lines at the front many thousands of women were employed to transport wire rolls or sacks of concrete for trenches as well as wood for the barracks. Loyal and trustworthy, these sturdy daughters of the Alps rendered unusual service to the nation in ministering daily to the needs of the army engaged in the Alpine warfare and they deserve more recognition than history will ever be able to give them.

The Italian Red Cross women also contributed their services as nurses, as managers of the rest houses and canteens for the soldiers going to the front and coming back, which originated in Milan.

The movement for the establishment of Casa del Soldato throughout Italy was also greatly helped by the women. For instance, the Casa del Soldato in Genoa was founded and maintained exclusively by the women's association, "Pro Patria." The material assistance and comfort which they offered to the soldiers was very properly supplemented and completed by another woman-devised and woman-managed institution—the "Ufficio Notizie Militari," a Bureau of Information for the interchange and distribution of news from the soldiers to their families, and vice versa.

The women of Italy awoke to an exalted sense of the tragic possibilities that lay before their country as early as August, 1914.



With many, of course, this comprehension resulted at first in little more than the sentiment of pity and maternal anxiety. But to the majority, though they realized fully the cost in suffering and death, Italy's duty was clear. She could not remain neutral or be in alliance with Teuton powers. She must intervene to complete the freedom of her people and to aid in returning other oppressed people to freedom.

Wherever intelligent women met, this truth became the topic of conversation. It quickly pervaded the consciousness of women of all classes. It is noteworthy that in the opening month of the war in Europe Teresina Pasini of Milan was going about in the most populous sections of the city addressing the working classes in an effort to make clear the danger of a continued alliance with Austria.

The "Fede Nuova," a review devoted to promulgating the principles of Mazzini, took a definite stand in regard to the Italian intervention as early as the autumn of 1914. The President of this review, Signora Alvina Albini Tondi, with Virginia Pincellotti Pace, a widely known journalist and writer of verse, and Professor Theresa Labriola, of the University of Rome, formed the permanent National Committee for Italian Intervention, and, on December 20, 1917, under its auspices, sent an appeal to Italian women.

The National Woman Suffrage Federation also sent a general appeal to get together all Italian women in a whole-hearted campaign

so as to add to the cause and help in every possible way.

The patriotic efforts and intellectual contribution during the war of that class of bourgeois women in Italy have been very remarkable when one considered that, owing to the traditions of middle class Italian home life, they had hitherto lived in retirement and refrained even from taking part in public meetings and celebrations.

Three notable institutions have come into being with the purpose of developing and organizing on a military basis the moral activities of Italy's women. They are the "Giovanetti Esploratrici," or Girl Scouts, the "Seminitrici di Coraggio," or Sowers of Courage, and the Corps of Women Aviators of Italy. The "Giovanetti Esploratrici" was especially remarkable if one considers the conservatism which had always marked the education of young Italian mothers and their consent to such a radical revolution in the lives of their daughters as when it was proposed to give them a masculine military education, such as was imparted by the Girl Scout Corps. The purposes of the league of the Sowers of Courage were: (1) to fight pessimism in all forms, whether open or disguised, (2) to cheer the tired and depressed spirits of fighters and workers, (3) to inspire with fervent patriotism women mourning for their beloved dead lost in battle.

Italian women by means of their lectures and publications gave far-reaching intellectual support during the war. The contributions of magazine articles have been espe-

cially numerous: conspicuous among them are the articles of Professor T. Labriola; Ada Negri, the poetess, and Flavio Steno, journalist.

Without question, the unusual service performed by Italian women during the past war has been very much appreciated and its importance estimated so highly that women are generally considered a new and forceful factor in the state. The varied experience which they gained through the performance of their many duties will be a rich contribution to the reconstruction period as well as a tremendous asset.

## CHAPTER VI.

### ITALY'S INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT DURING THE WAR

To create and maintain supplies for an army of millions, whether on the frontiers, or across the seas, as well as to feed and clothe them and to provide for all the needs of modern war, so voracious in its demands, presents a further view of the efforts displayed by Italy.

The difficulties that had to be overcome were greater than those of almost any other nation. Italy had to learn from actual experience, as well as had the Allies, that almost every phase of the operation of this war surpassed all previous calculations. This was especially true with regard to cannon and ammunition. Even Germany, who had prepared the peculiar mechanism of the modern war of which she thought she held the secret and who had organized her enormous industries for a prompt mobilization, finding herself obliged to face an unforeseen continuation of the struggle and having realized the gigantic consumption required of both offensive and defensive, had been obliged to make an effort, surpassing anything previous. One then understands how the Powers of the Entente had to go on increasing their outlay while waging war, and how Italy had to obey the same law.

But to provide for the experiences of war, Italy did not possess the vast industrial or-

ganization of Great Britain or the powerful one of France, to say nothing of the enormous industries possessed today by the United States. Her industries were in a formative state, especially those connected with Metallurgy, which were essential for the conduct of the war. She had to overcome grave difficulties, such as the want of coal and steel. At the outbreak of hostilities Italy imported steel, machinery and metals from other countries and it was from Germany that she imported the larger quantity. Germany in peace time had furnished her with war material and especially with artillery. During the period of neutrality the gravity of the problem gradually unfolded itself, and Italy took heed of her own industries, having understood from this moment that no campaign could be undertaken unless supported by direct home production.

But only on the declaration of war in May, 1915, when bitter experience began to demonstrate it inexorably, did Italy understand what a vast war machine was required to conquer an enemy not only extraordinarily well equipped but also situated in such favorable natural positions as to overwhelm almost any effort. Every previous calculation seemed enormously inferior to the need; but the problem had to be faced. Some Italian industries had to be multiplied; others had to be created. Machinery for the new tasks had to be supplied; labor increased, educated, and organized; coal and steel distributed carefully. But these last became daily more difficult to obtain, owing



✓ to the high freightage demanded and the want of vessels. What had become a problem of transformation and multiplication in England and France, where industrial essentials already existed, and where all that was needed was to increase the output in determined quantities, in Italy was a problem of contrivance.

The outlook was not cheerful since the very essentials to build up her industries demanded the acquirements of coal which Italy lacked. Yet what had to be done was done, even though the difficulties seemed insurmountable.

Industrial mobilization was proclaimed in August, 1915, under the control of the Under Secretary for Arms and Munitions. This was necessary to regulate, control and co-ordinate all existing activities and to create new ones. Through this, and for the first time in the history of the nation, Italy, forced by the demands of war, attempted to regulate her industries. Differences on the part of both manufacturers and operatives had to be overcome; but it was overcome, because the government realized that discipline was imperative for this enormous task, and because the new office was created and put into force with simple methods and with no bureaucratic friction.

The difficulties to be solved contained a number of peculiar problems, each of which was of great importance and very difficult of solution. But they were attacked with all the greater vigor, just because they were so complex, and even contradictory.

The Bureau of Industrial Mobilization had to organize production, and thus provide for the increase in the manufacture of machines as well as ascertain the powers of production of the mineral industries. It was necessary to augment the production of steel, which was, previous to the war, about one-tenth part of that produced in Great Britain and the sixth of that in Russia.

It was necessary to make an exact calculation of all the electrical associations for the organization of reciprocal aid in case of a diminution in power in some, and to provide for a better utilization of electric energy. The regulation of the railway transport which fed these establishments, the proportionate distribution of combustibles of all sorts, the enrollment of mechanics, forming in themselves an army, the collection of all waste metals, were some of the many problems attacked and solved. Military discipline, the just foundation of work in such establishments, whether military or otherwise, facilitated the labor of adjusting economic questions, the solution of which had been entrusted to a board of manufacturers and workmen.

Controlled establishments, that is to say, private industries engaged in the production of war material, were without delay connected with the military ones through the Industrial Mobilization Committee. And besides this well organized and disciplined group, other minor establishments sprang up for the production of munitions especial-



ly for the output of projectiles, which were also under the same control.

In 1915, the soldiers outweighed their scant supplies by their heroism, experiences gained in the trenches necessitated the addition of new artillery as well as instruments of attack and defense much as were in vogue in the middle ages; bombs, flame-throwers, hand grenades, helmets, shields, etc. The Industrial forces passed rapidly from the phase of organization to that of development: indeed, the two were all but simultaneous.

At the close of the year, 1915, one noted a considerable increase in both men and munitions. The industrial army numbered 200,000 men and the controlled establishments increased to about 300. But as the need of arming for a long and difficult war was made manifest, the efforts made during the winter season and the first six months of 1916 were such that the controlled establishments leaped up to 800 and were supported by a proportionate increase of workers, who soon amounted to about 300,000.

Although this leap was not yet enough for what was wanted, still it proved that Italy would and could do more, and so the Industrial Mobilization Board, with redoubled vigor, busied itself with another important problem—the organization of women's work. At the close of 1916 the results were such as to assure the most absolute confidence. The controlled establishments numbered 1000 and the industrial army 500,000, which included some 70,000 women.

In the spring of 1917 Italy showed what superb work she had achieved. More than 300 controlled establishments were added to 66 of a military nature, some of them of the greatest importance, nor one must not forget the 1200 lesser ones which were not under control. More than 600,000 workmen, counting soldiers, exempted and unfit for military service, labored therein. Women who, on October 31, 1915, or two months after the industrial mobilization, had numbered only 6000, now figured at 100,000. In fifteen months the number had been increased some fifteen fold.

This powerful organization produced practically everything by way of war material. Cannon of 381 and 305 calibre; mortars of 260 and of 210; artillery of medium calibre, 152 and 149; cannon of 105 and 102; others of 75 and of 65; as well as light anti-aerial guns, left the Italian workshops together with all the projectiles they required. Every month hundreds of cannon and hundreds of thousands of projectiles were turned out. There were mortars of every type, certain of which did such good work at the glorious Battle of Gorizia; machine guns, rifles, hand grenades, cartridges, helmets and shields: the production of every description of article for offense or defense was multiplied. In the spring of 1916 the output of machine guns was already eight times more than that of the first months of the same year while seven times as many trench bombs, five times as many rifles and

three times as many cannon were manufactured.

But the Italian workshops provided also all means of transport: of these by far the most important was the motor, in the production of which Italy was able also to supply her Allies. They provided all the various products required by the artillery and the engineers; all the large and heavy material for the sappers and miners; delicate electrical apparatus, telegraphic, telephonic and optical plants; all appliances necessary for torpedoes, torpedo boats, mines; as well as all things required for the aerial warfare, in which Italy had asserted her supremacy over the enemy.

The construction of a semi-rigid type of dirigible, invented and perfected by the Italians, has been perfected to such an extent that both the army and navy derived the greatest assurance from these powerful vessels. Austria had nothing to compare with them.

But most of all was Italy's supreme force directed to the production of aeroplanes. Whereas, at the opening of the war, the aviation industry hardly existed, during the third year of the war, ninety establishments were given over to this branch. Aircraft were built in large numbers and the aviation service was benefited with the possession of such powerful machines of destruction as were possessed by no other power. In short, up to the present time, aviation is ever more assured by successful trials of its use in peace time; and many experiments have

been carried out for the transport of mail over the continent and between the continent and the islands.

With these industrial efforts one must not forget the work achieved by the state railways, which embrace the largest network of lines in Europe under any single control. The first operation of supreme importance by the railway system was in connection with the mobilization of the troops that formed the army; the second, which was of far greater complexity, was constituted by the enormous transportation of the men, material, provisions, and supplies, that mean life to an army at the front. In the first quarter of 1916, the intensity of the daily military transport was more than fifteen per cent greater than that in the period of mobilization of May and June, 1915.

Difficulties had to be overcome that were indeed serious. Firstly, those presented by the configuration of the country, which demanded protracted journeys to carry what was required to the army at the front from Italian centres. Besides the distance, very terrible gradients had to be passed, since the line, on which traffic had to be accumulated for reasons of defense, was along the Tyrrhenian coast, which, in order to reach the plain of the Po, had to surmount the barrier of the Apennines.

The state railways were able thoroughly and efficiently to wrestle with every problem imposed on them through the transport of troops and recruits, of wounded and sick,

of prisoners of war, of arms and ammunition, of food and clothing, of all the enormous mass of goods required, not only for the army at the front but for the expeditionary forces across the sea. Moreover, they performed extensive transport work for their allies with regard to the troops and war material passing through Italy en route for Macedonia. Thus, within the first twenty-two months, the war statistics show that 11,000,000 soldiers and officers, 1,000,000 quadrupeds, 3 million wagons of necessary material, with a monthly maximum that reached 900,000 men and 180,000 trucks or wagons, were handled. On several lines daily traffic showed more than 100 trains; on some days as many as 120; and at the stations, where traffic was at its greatest, no less than 300, 320 and even 350 trains were totalled. To this must be added the collection of trucks to form the sanitary trains, which were two-thirds more than was considered necessary in time of peace, for the composition of armoured trains on coast defense service, for the refrigerating cars of frozen meats, of which, within a comparatively short time, no less than 100,000 tons were sent up.

With all this, the state railways supported the increase in the transport of coal and of materials required for Italy's industries, guaranteeing also a proper division of food stuffs, especially cereals. It also took that portion of the traffic which, before the war, was borne by the Adriatic Navigation Com-



pany, and it reduced, without serious inconvenience, the passenger service. As a matter of fact, the proceeds of the traffic in the first portion of the war (1915-1916) amounted to 758,657,788 lire of which 221,589,088 lire were for military transport, with an increase of 183,000,000 over the preceding. And it increased in the following period (1917-1918); so that the average monthly turn-over was some 90,000,000 as compared with 48,000,000 in 1913-1914.

The proof of this resistance, as afforded by fixed and rolling stock, has been of the best, even though it has been necessary to obtain from both an exceptional amount of work, as the absorption of the industry for war purposes had delayed or even impeded the consignment of materials on the part of the makers. But the state railways inflicted severe labor on their workshops, and not only succeeded in dealing with the feverish work of repairs but also manufactured projectiles, thus co-operating with the arsenals for the provision of war materials.

No more complete idea may be obtained of the steady progress made by Italian industries and of the promising outlook for their future by comparing the number of industrial concerns and their capital, at the end of the year just preceding the war, with their growth in number and financial capacity at the end of 1917, together with a glance at their geographical distribution.

The following data gives at a glance the

great development from 1913 to 1917 in Italian industries as a whole:

Region	December 31, 1913		December 31, 1917	
	No.*	Capital	No.*	Capital
Piedmont .....	306	442,737,000	299	703,647,000
Liguria .....	254	658,749,000	306	983,803,000
Lombardy .....	896	1,347,648,000	1019	1,768,697,000
Venetia .....	159	156,526,000	160	208,609,000
Emilia .....	86	84,944,000	116	99,510,000
Tuscany .....	140	153,638,000	165	231,858,000
Marche .....	24	14,443,000	33	18,933,000
Umbria .....	25	7,713,000	26	7,875,000
Latium .....	213	593,886,000	296	842,745,000
Abruzzi & Molise	26	3,948,000	25	5,434,000
Campania .....	140	174,943,000	183	407,769,000
Apulia .....	34	25,517,000	42	23,236,000
Basilicata .....	4	880,000	6	321,000
Calabria .....	9	4,815,000	22	8,482,000
Sicily .....	70	60,373,000	87	82,462,000
Sardinia .....	3	1,025,000	8	8,525,000
Totals .....	2386	3,731,705,000	2793	5,401,906,000

\* Number of Industrial Concerns.

The figures show an aggregate of 407 new industrial concerns, representing an augmented financial capacity of 1,670,301 lire at the end of 1917. The distribution of this increase shows that all the Italian regions have contributed to the development of Italian industry in proportion to their initial strength. The growth has not been regional but nationwide; it is a true development of all industrial Italy—a development which, according to present events, seems to have a brilliant future.

At the end of 1916 there were in Italy 2,179 establishments, with a force of 468,940 workers, producing war material.

The number of the establishments at the



end of 1917 had grown to 2,849, which may be classified as follows:

Kind	No.	Kind	No.
Aviation .....	25	Mechanic .....	625
Explosives .....	35	Miscellaneous .....	323
Electric Industry .....	97	Military Establish-	
Metallurgic & Sider-		ments .....	66
urgical .....	113	Minor Establishments..	1,200
Chemical .....	113		
Gas .....	130	Total .....	2,849
Textile & alimentary ..	185		

The rapidity of the industrial mobilization during 1916 and 1917 is shown in the following table, which gives the increase in number of laborers employed every three months:

1916	Number	1917	Number
1st Trimestre .....	180,000	1st Trimestre .....	540,000
2nd Trimestre .....	340,000	2nd Trimestre .....	630,000
3rd Trimestre .....	390,000	3rd Trimestre .....	700,000
4th Trimestre .....	450,000	4th Trimestre .....	775,000

At the end of 1916, the skilled laborers, men and women, mobilized in 66 military establishments, amounted to 34,119; while the number of those working in the 932 auxiliary establishments existing at that time was 399,955.

At the end of 1917 the people working only in the auxiliary establishments amounted to 621,066.

The rapid increase in the amount of capital invested in Italy is undoubtedly one of the most significant proofs of Italian expansion in the industrial fields during the war. The phenomenon might have been foreseen because of the raising of prices, but nobody could have forecast the imposing proportions which it reached.

At the beginning of the war, Italian indus-

tries were obliged to provide both for civilians and also for the government, goods formerly imported from enemy countries and at the same time to increase exports to the Allies as well as to neutral countries freed from German competition. This two-fold task would have been impossible without the help of new capital.

Italy has been pictured as a country poor in financial resources and inclined to prefer investing its capital in securities of the State rather than in stocks of private industrial enterprises. Yet, when capital was needed for extraordinary war production, more than 1,300,000,000 lire were invested in ordinary sharing societies in one year.

A comparison between the movement of the stock companies during 1917 and that in the preceding year, and a further comparison with 1915 and the last six months of 1914, show how remarkably the entire financial organism of the country resisted the stroke of war, and how the activity of the stock companies increased. This activity, naturally, was unusual and due to the exigencies of war, but it is nevertheless indicative of the economical strength of Italy.

Although certain industries, as Ex-Premier Nitti observed in a financial report to the Chamber of Deputies, such as those connected with the movement of foreigners and those requiring a great quantity of fuel, together with some banking enterprises of minor importance, profited greatly by the mechanical, electrical, textile and mining enterprises due to war conditions. At the

same time, other industries, as, for example, those for chemical products and dyes which had hitherto been German monopolies, were newly created or developed, so that they showed in 1915 and 1916 an investment, respectively, of 10,485,000 lire, and 32,260,000 lire. By 1917 they had attracted an investment of 111,711,200 lire, together with an increase of 36 new establishments.

The effect of the war, at first, was to increase the amount of investments in industry. During the last six months of 1914, the amount of capital invested was 73,618,345 lire, against a withdrawal from investment of 77,429,475 lire, giving a net balance of 3,811,130 lire in favor of the latter. In 1915, although the movement of capital was still slow, the total investments were 196,733,795 lire, against 118,115,154 lire of withdrawals, so that investments were again taking the upper hand with a difference of 76,615,641 lire. But in 1916 there were investments of 409,986,770 lire, against 178,223,815 lire of withdrawals, and in 1917 the very remarkable amount of 1,359,941,191 lire of investments was reached, against only 77,359,974 lire of withdrawal, thus bringing the amount of capital invested in the sharing companies up to about 7,000,000,000 lire.

A clear perception of the increase may be gained also from the number of companies legally established during the last three years:

Year	Number of companies	Capital subscribed
1915 .....	155	99,204,245
1916 .....	173	176,441,091
1917 .....	282	491,498,225

The question which at once arises upon viewing this great growth of Italian industry is whether this development, favored as it has been by war, will be able to adapt itself to the conditions of peace. Without hesitation it can be answered that the 700,000,000 lire of capital invested during the second period of 1917 and the still greater amount in 1916, will hasten the industrial growth of the country and will solve the labor problems as well. Labor is a primary asset to Italy. It involves the problem of emigration and the return of more than four million laborers who are being discharged from the army. Mining, siderurgical, mechanical, chemical and electro-chemical, electrical, maritime, automobile and textile industries will help greatly in the matter by being transformed and applied to peacetime needs. Agricultural production will be stimulated by the construction of auto-ploughs, threshing machines and other tools. Merchant ships will be built. The utilization of hydraulic energy is under way. Railroad lines and equipment, worn out by four years of war, will be restored. The greater part of the capital invested will be retained and its utilization will be transformed so as to bring economic industrial prosperity to Italy, now that its task of assuring military victory has been fulfilled.

The development of steel and steel products has become one of the main tasks assumed by the siderurgical industry of Italy. This development is progressing so in both technique and organization that in a short

time it will be possible for Italy to produce at less cost than abroad all steel and steel products needed by the industries of the country.

In 1913 steel production in Italy came from sixty-seven Martin furnaces, two Robert converters, two Bessemer and seven electric furnaces. In 1915, the electric furnaces were increased to twenty, and the Robert converters to four, while two crucible furnaces had been added. In 1916, twenty-two Martin furnaces were under construction and the electric furnaces had increased twofold the potentiality already reached in 1915.

Steel production which, in 1914, had been nearly 900,000 tons, passed the million ton mark in 1915. Only 2.6% of this quantity was reproduced electrically, 97% of it coming from the Martin furnaces. In 1916, steel was produced to the amount of 1,300,000 tons, with electric production going up to 4.5% and that of Martin furnaces lowering to 94.5%. In 1917, the production continued to increase, indeed, but though precise data are lacking, it can be calculated that the production by electricity increased to 8%.

The Martin process of production is, nevertheless, the main source of steel in Italy. The Martin furnaces in 1902 to 1913 tripled and are still increasing, while the converters did not increase and sometimes did not work at all. A peculiar fact is evident, on the contrary, in the increase of the electric furnaces from seven to forty, as a



result brought about by the war through the lack of fuel and the high price asked for such as was obtainable.

The metallurgic corporations, which numbered only sixty-eight in 1913, show an increase to ninety-three in 1917, and their capital was collectively increased from 330,674,000 lire to 530,000,000 lire, showing a growth of 200,181,000 lire. The following table gives a detailed comparison between the situation on December 31, 1913, and the corresponding one in 1917:

Region	December 31, 1913		December 31, 1917	
	Com- panies	Capital	Com- panies	Capital
Piedmont .....	15	28,205,000	14	42,527,000
Liguria .....	16	111,547,000	17	83,905,000
Lombardy .....	20	46,330,000	39	89,943,000
Venetia .....	2	2,350,000	2	2,120,000
Emilia .....	---	-----	1	650,000
Tuscany .....	4	28,350,000	3	57,670,000
Umbria .....	1	300,000	1	600,000
Latium .....	7	106,792,000	9	234,300,000
Campania .....	2	4,300,000	6	16,640,000
Sicily .....	1	2,500,000	1	2,500,000
Totals .....	68	330,674,000	93	530,855,000

The steel industry of Italy enjoyed an enormous increase because of the war. It was obliged to maintain its pace at the highest rate of production for the national defense while still facing the most serious difficulties from scarcity of fuel. But the broad and active contributions of Italian statesmen, economists, technical men and capitalists, helped the situation out of the difficulties in a brilliant way.

The corporations working in mechanical industries in 1913 numbered 140, with an aggregate capital of 224,631,000 lire. In

1917 they were 175 in number, while their aggregate capital had been increased to 342,-848,000 lire, showing an increase of 118,217,-000 lire.

This is a detailed prospect of them according to their location and their financial situation on December 31, 1913, and 1917, respectively:

Region	December 31, 1913		December 31, 1917	
	Com- panies	Capital	Com- panies	Capital
Piedmont .....	25	51,300,000	22	76,000,000
Liguria .....	16	24,988,000	21	56,000,000
Lombardy .....	67	102,920,000	81	129,948,000
Venetia .....	6	5,720,000	8	14,300,000
Emilia .....	1	7,000,000	5	19,639,000
Tuscany .....	11	6,015,000	8	9,655,000
Latium .....	4	16,200,000	7	12,600,000
Campania .....	8	9,668,000	19	23,320,000
Apulia .....	1	700,000	1	700,000
Calabria .....	---	-----	1	60,000
Sicily .....	1	120,000	2	430,000
Totals .....	140	224,631,000	175	342,848,000

The activity displayed by the automobile and aeroplane industries in Italy during the war had attracted special attention in view of their very remarkable increase in production, and consequently in exportation.

Italy had imported, during 1913, automobiles aggregating 13,531,372 lire in value. This importation had decreased, on December 31, 1917, to a total of 7,729,900 lire, showing a difference of 5,801,472 lire. At the same time the exportation, which amounted at the end of 1913 to 34,180,937 lire, had increased in 1917 to 115,693,805 lire, showing an increase of 81,512,868 lire.

This accounts very favorably for the work which has been performed by the old Italian firms such as the Fiat, the Isotta-Fras-



chini and the Lancia, as well as by the new-born ones, or those which established special branches for the automobile industry.

At the end of 1913 only thirty companies were engaged in the manufacture of automobiles and they had an aggregate capital of only 49,167,000 lire. On December 31, 1917, their number were augmented to fifty-five, amounting to 195,076,000 lire. This shows an increase, therefore, of twenty-three companies and of 145,909,000 lire in capital.

In the aeroplane industry, the Caproni, Sovaia, Industria Aviatore and Meridionale companies, together with the three aviation establishments of Ansaldo, account for the best results.

In 1913, Italy had 173 corporations concerned in the textile industry, some of them, such as the Giovanni Rossi and the Edoardo Stucchi, world famous. The active movement of war-times has exercised its influence also upon these peaceful industries. Of late, seven more textile concerns have been formed while the aggregate capital of these 180 companies amounts to 494,633,000 lire, with an increase of 50,834,000 lire over 1913. The advance in the average dividends was from 3.3% in 1913 to 5.6% in 1917. The chemical industry in Italy has made noteworthy progress within the last fifteen years. Even before the war it employed 100,000 H. P. and 12,000 workers and produced material to the value of about 180,000,000 lire. The chemical concerns, which in 1913 were 222, had increased to 276 in

1917; and their aggregate capital from 270,-499,000 lire in 1913 to 472,672,000 lire in 1917, showing a plus increase of 202,173,000.

At present, operations are already under way for the manufacture on a large scale of all the chemical substances required by the country.

Another important branch of the chemical industry is that of fertilizers, for it has been estimated that Italy could thereby treble its consumption of wheat. Notwithstanding the difficulties naturally encountered in dealing with an industry which is new in Italy, or perhaps the heritage of a few specialists, the progress being made is really encouraging.

Exportation of silk products before the war equalled the fourth part in value of the entire exportation. Among the exports of the five years immediately preceding the war (1909-1913) which were estimated at an average of 2,211,941,253, the silk export figures were 533,713,239 lire. The war did not bring harm to the silk trade. On the contrary, by increasing the value of silk products, any decrease in amount of exports was counterbalanced. Taking into consideration the average value of the entire exportation in 1915 and 1916, which has been estimated at 2,810,866,873 lire, the silk export shows an average value of 666,290,000 lire.

The beneficent result in the increase of prices was still more evident in 1916. The value of silk goods exported in 1916 shows an increase of 25% over 1915; so that while the quantity of exported goods decreased

by an estimated amount to 240,000,000 lire in comparison with 1915, still, through the augmented prices, it was possible to reach an increase of 795,000,000 lire in silk export.

Remarkable advance has come about during the war in regard to Italy's maritime industry. Ex-Premier Signor Boselli said once: "Our country has to become a great maritime nation, or she will never be a great nation." And that is perfectly true. Italy had realized longer before, but never before had she struggled because of the lack of a merchant marine in wartime. Thousands of economists and publishers enlisted in an active campaign to turn all available resources of Italy toward the development of her merchant fleet.

Although the war immediately reduced to the lowest limit all the tonnage on hand, inasmuch as all governments were forbidding rather than merely limiting the sale of ships to foreign ship owners, still, the Italian merchant marine was able to increase her fleet during 1915 by twenty-three steamships, mostly for freighting purposes, and each of them greater than 1,000 gross tons. And on January 1, 1916, the shipyards of Italy were already actively building twenty-five merchant steamships of steel, aggregating 103,500 tons.

Furthermore, a special Ministry of Transportation was formed, and there were many decrees promulgated to help the merchant marine. Among them, the one issued in August, 1916, is the most remarkable, as it provides for very considerable support to the

industry of ship owning and building, while it gives to all the ships bought any time within two years after the passage of the law full exemption from the income and superprofit taxations for three years.

By a special provision of the government, in November, 1916, the Istituto di Credito Navale (Naval Institution of Credit) was established to support the maritime industry, with a capital of 50,000,000 lire for credits to be granted to ship owners and shipbuilders, while another institution for maritime credit, having the same capital, was privately established. Fourteen new navigation companies with a capital of 226,450,000 lire were born in 1917 and there were new shipyards with a capital of 55,500,000 lire.

Italy, as has been said, rests mainly upon the sea for future expansion of her trade. From a referendum submitted to the Italian Chamber of Commerce on after-the-war plans, it may be learned that the industrial development of the nation is strongly urged through the utilization of the national waterpower, and that it ranks only second in importance to the development of agriculture.

The hydraulic power of Italy is, indeed, of such conspicuous strength that if rationally managed it may give all the Italian industries almost complete independence from any other kind of fuel. It has been estimated as exceeding 5,000,000 H. P. The government is doing its best to further the private initiative in deriving electrical pow-

er from water, and the proof of the faith of industrial men in this development is the fact that the largest part of industrial capital is invested in hydro-electric concerns.

In 1913 the number of companies engaged in electrical industry was already 288, with an aggregate capital of 638,861,000 lire. At the end of 1917 the number of companies had been increased to 238, and the capital to 903,164,000 lire, showing an increase of 264,303,000 lire. In Lombardy alone, there are 120 electric concerns with an aggregate capital of 440,076,000 lire. The Campania comes second with twenty-eight companies and an aggregate capital of 137,826,000 lire. Venetia and Piedmont have twenty-seven firms, with 67,339,000 lire, and 72,699,000 lire of capital, respectively. The southern provinces, too, seem to display great activity in this field. Apulia and Calabria have twenty-seven, aggregating a capital of 11,569,000 lire.

When speaking of the economic future of Italy, reference is generally made to the country's industrial progress, especially during the past few years. The fact is sometimes overlooked that Italy has 70,000,000 or more acres of which 50,000,000 are under cultivation, and that a majority of the population is engaged in farming so that the country's agricultural wealth is her principal characteristic.

The slogan "Back to the land," which, during the great industrial development of our modern epoch, seemed but the solitary cry of dreamers, bids fair to become the



principal basis of the new program of economic and social reconstruction after the war. It is very interesting to note that this new trend of thought in Italy is progressing, despite the deafening of the thousands of factories working from end to end of the land.

As I travelled through the Northern part of Italy, particularly through Turin, Milan and Genoa, I soon saw that within the past few years a great number of efficient industrial organizations had been developed. Notable among these is the group known as the Ansaldo Company in Turin. At the beginning of the war this group of activities offered at once to turn their establishments into the making of guns for the army and they actually became the largest contributing factors toward victory from the standpoint of supplying ammunition with their huge industry of 100,000 men.

During the last two years of the war, the New York branch of the Ansaldo Company, notwithstanding the countless difficulties of embargoes of every kind, bought in the United States, and shipped to Italy in its own steamers, war material costing over fifty-two million dollars. All this material was used only in the Ansaldo Works in Italy. Numbering about forty different establishments in connection with the mining industry, cast iron, bronze, and steel foundries, electro-metallurgy, engine building, artillery and munition works, aviation motors, production of oxygen and hydrogen, electro technical works, factories for gaso-



line and heavy oil motors, ship-building and air craft yards, ship-rigging works and the treatment of fire-proof materials, it can truly be said of the Perrone Brothers of the Ansaldo Company that they are today among the contributors to the reconstruction program, just as they were to the ultimate victory in the World War.

## CHAPTER VII.

### FIUME—ITS HISTORICAL STATUS.

Fiume, situated at the eastern base of the peninsula of Istria, belongs geographically to Istria. The eastern boundary of Italy, however, is on the declivity of the Julian Alps, which descends toward the sea at the channel of Morlacca, over against the Rock St. Mark, thus bringing Fiume within the territory that geographically belongs to Italy.

If the city of Fiume has assumed world-wide importance, it is because of its irresistible Italianity. Everything we know of the ancient history of Fiume proves the determination of her citizens to remain Italian—a determination which is confirmed by their recent history. When, in 1848, the Croats, who had joined forces with the Austrians against revolutionary Hungary, took military possession of the city of Fiume, their leader, the representative of the Ban of Croatia, recognizing the nationality of the inhabitants, promised to respect the city's municipal liberties and the use of the Italian language. The people of Fiume, however, knowing that they could not trust the promises of their conquerors, resisted by every means in their power; nor could their spirit be broken by nineteen years of continual repressions. Persecutions as well as measures of repression could not put an end to the repeated pretexts of the municipality

against any and every annexation to Croatia.

When the Hungarians, who succeeded the Croats in 1867 and were hailed as liberators, began to make attempts on the national character of Fiume, they met with an equally sturdy resistance. It was useless to try to wipe out twenty centuries of Latin civilization in a few years, and the attempt was doomed to failure from the beginning. The Hungarian government tried to attain its end by colonization. It began by installing a regular army of Hungarian officials in the postal and telegraphic services, the customs and tax offices, schools, railways, public works and banks, thus creating a body which could be trusted to obey. This, however, was not sufficient. The struggles of daily life only served to strengthen the consciences of the Italians, whose commerce and industries served as so many weapons of defense.

The government then determined to turn its attention to the realm of intellect by making the higher schools thoroughly Hungarian and by refusing admission to all who were not ready to renounce their own nationality. They made the study of the Hungarian language compulsory and appointed Magyars to teach Italians, with the object of corrupting and debasing the language. These efforts were fruitless also.

Until February, 1914, the origin of Fiume was unknown. An arch between two houses in the old part of the town, traditionally known as the Roman Arch, and the allusions

to Roman works on its present location, as shown by the writing of Claudius Ptolomy, afforded grounds for supposing it to be of Latin origin. The Italian dialect spoken by the native population could only have been a development of Latin, nor could its origin be ascribed to Venice, for Venice ruled Fiume for only one year, 1508-1509.

Nevertheless, many students of local history threw doubts on these suppositions, for none of the written documents relating to Fiume date back further than the XIIIth century. The old chronicles only speak of Tarsatica, destroyed in the year 800 by Charlemagne, and reappearing in the middle ages under the name of San Vito al Fiume, known later as Fiume. The discovery, however, in 1914, of Roman remains under a house, which was pulled down in the older part of the city, removed all doubt of Fiume's Latin origin.

Fiume, from its foundation a free municipality, was for some time under the dominion of the Franks, then it became successively a Fief of the Bishop of Pedena, of the Bishop of Pola, of the Lords of Walsee and, finally, of the Hapsburgs. For thirty years only, in the fourteenth century, Fiume was held in pledge by the Croatian family of the Frangipani in 1752, was made part of the government of Trieste, a union that was but natural.

All documents relative to the city of Fiume bear witness to its uninterruptedly Italian character, which victoriously survived the Slav invasion from the Danubian

region in the seventh century. In 1776, Maria Theresa, then paramount ruler over Hungary and Croatia, incorporated Fiume, not to Croatia, as some students of history have erroneously stated, but to Hungary through Croatia, then a part of the Kingdom of Hungary. Later on, as a result of the protests of the inhabitants of Fiume, a royal decree of April, 1779, proclaimed Fiume to be a separate body annexed to the "crown of the Kingdom of Hungary." The plan adopted by Maria Theresa could not have been clearer or more effective in declaring Fiume to be a quite distinct body, directly connected with the Royal Crown of Hungary, and having no connection whatever with Croatia.

During the Hungarian revolution of 1848, when the Magyars were entertaining aspirations to national freedom, Fiume was taken from Hungary by the Croats of the Bana Jelacco, who, as always, had remained faithful to the Hapsburgs. They held it for fourteen years, though they were unable, in spite of their strenuous endeavors, to undermine its Italian character; and in 1867, in the dualistic settlement between Austria and Hungary, it was restored to Hungary.

The historical boundaries of the free city of Fiume and its territory were established by Imperial Patent, issued by Ferdinand First on July 20th, 1530, recognized by Maria Theresa in 1779, and finally by the Hungarian Government in 1868. Deputations from Croatia and Fiume met at Budapest and decided that the free city of Fiume and

its territory should remain, in accordance with the charter of 1779, provisionally annexed to Hungary, as a separate body.

The collapse of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy at Vittoria Veneto has afforded Fiume the best opportunity to avail herself of the right to join Italy, her mother country. Basing her claim on this right as well as on President Wilson's principle of self-determination, the National Council of the Free Town of Fiume and its territory in October, 1918, solemnly resolved: "The Italian National Council of Fiume, assembled today in full session, declares that by reason of that right whereby all nations have attained independence and liberty, the city of Fiume, which up to now was a separate body constituting an Italian National Municipality, also claims for itself the right of self-determination. Taking its stand on this right, the National Council proclaims Fiume united to its motherland, Italy. The Italian National Council considers as provisional the state of things that commenced on October 29, 1918, and it places its right under the protection of America, the mother liberty and universal democracy, awaiting the sanction of this right at the hands of the Peace Conference."

Such was the constitutional status of Fiume until April 29, 1919.

Minister Antonio Scialoja has written thus of the Fiume resolution: "As professor of law, ever laying aside all sentiments as an Italian, I state this resolution is indestructible unless it be destroyed by violence.



Who could prevent the free Italian community of Fiume from making use of its right? The autonomy of Fiume, by the collapse of the Hungarian crown, has become politically independent so that by its decisions the National Council gave expression to a free will and productive sovereign of a sole judicial right. Through its representatives, the Republic of Fiume wishes to be joined to the mother land, in sphere of greater liberty. Whosoever would deny the judicial value of this solemn act would contradict the principles laid down by President Wilson and the law of public right accepted by all free people."

The Italian character of Fiume is indisputably proved, besides, by its official census. According to the return for 1910, the Italians in Fiume numbered 24,000, less 6,000 Italian citizens, most of whom were members of Italian families in Fiume who had obtained Italian citizenship. The Slavs (Croats, Serbs, Slovenes) were 12,000; the Magyars, is borne out by official statistics as a matter of fact, and the number of Italians belonging to the permanent population of Fiume before the war is well proven by official figures, even though they are known to be manipulated against Italian interest.

Moreover, the nationality of Fiume is confirmed by the fact that all mayors and deputies of the city, as well as the members of the Municipal Council, have always been Italian. All schools in Fiume are Italian; the number of children attending the Croatian schools at Sussak, the neighboring city, is

hardly one per cent of the total number of school children in Fiume.

The Jugo-Slav commerce passing through Fiume is only seven per cent of the whole traffic of the port. Of the total Jugo-Slav importations and exportations, thirteen per cent goes through Fiume and 87 per cent goes through Dalmatian ports.

Since April 29th, 1919, the constitutional situation of Fiume has changed, according to the telegram sent to ex-President Wilson by the National Council: "The population of Fiume, assembled under the Italian flag in the presence of representatives of the glorious American Army, replies to your proclamations by enforcing full power over the city upon the representatives of the Italian government.

"In the name of our dead on the Piave and on the Isonzo, we express to you our greatest gratitude for provoking with your attitude the highest and most solemn manifestations in favor of Italian sentiment which this city could make before the world.

"We inform you that Fiume's union with Italy is an accomplished fact."

Neither General Grazioli, Commander of the Allied troops and Military Governor of Fiume, nor the Italian government accepted officially the annexation to Italy because they wanted to act in full agreement with the Allies, but its Italian character seems undeniably established.

## CHAPTER VIII.

### DALMATIA: ITS HISTORICAL STATUS.

Dalmatia, cut off from the Balkans by the mountains, is joined to Italy by the sea. Some conditions studied with great interest by geologists lead to the supposition that before the Adriatic became a sea it was a continuation of the Paduan plain, even now the Adriatic seems less like a sea than like a great lake within the territory which is bounded to the east by the Julian and Dinaric Alps and to the west by the Apennines.

West of the Dinaric Alps lie Istria, Dalmatia and the whole basin of the Adriatic, while on the eastern slopes of those mountains is formed the great orthographic basin of the Danube River into which run all the rivers of Jugo-Slavia (the Save, the Drave and others) and on which is built the future metropolis of the new commonwealth, Belgrade. None of the Jugo-Slavic rivers run into the Adriatic. The Danube is the orthographic and economic outlet of Croatia and the other Jugo-Slav countries from Vienna to the Black Sea.

On the eastern shores of the Adriatic there dwelt in ancient times the Illyrians who to the north and in the outposts of the Alps merged with the Celts and to the south with the Greeks. Divided into many peoples bearing different names, they gradually gathered into two groups, the Lithuanians

and the Dalmatians, separated by the River Tizio, now the Cherca.

Dalmatia was a Roman colony as early as two centuries before Christ. Dalmatia gave Rome one of her greatest emperors in the person of Diocletian, whose monumental palaces, completed the year 303 A. D., are still pointed out with pride by the natives of Spalato as worthy to rank among the "seven wonders." In the same way "most Italian Fiume" points to the triumphal arch of another Roman Emperor, Claudius II, and to her Venetian Basilica of San Vito; and Sebenico's Cathedral, also of Venetian origin and design, is pride of all Dalmatia.

The Cathedral of Santa Anastasia in Zara, capital of the "Kingdom of Dalmatia" (as its official name still is), was founded in 1202 by Enrico Dandolo, Doge of Venice. Her campanile di Santa Maria is a century older. Zara has also preserved with care her old Roman tower, her Roman aqueduct, and her ancient Loggia del Comune, with its 34,000 volumes and invaluable manuscripts in Latin and other languages. Merely to mention Dalmatia's Roman and Venetian antiquities and archeological remains would fill volumes.

Many of the greatest among Italian poets and authors were natives of Dalmatia. Tommaseo is one of them. The whole eastern coast of the Adriatic has given to Rome, Venice and Italy down to the present day, thousands upon thousands of patriots, soldiers, and martyrs. Oberdan of Trieste, and Sauro of Capo d'Istria (Istria) are

among the latest and greatest, along with Rismondo of Spalato (Dalmatia), who have honored and hallowed Austria's scaffold in 1917 by dying upon it for Italy's sake. Several of the political refugees from the eastern coast of the Adriatic have become Ministers of the Kingdom of Italy; two of them, General Zupelli, a native of Capo d'Istria (Istria), and Hon. Barzilai, a native of Trieste, were Ministers during the recent War.

Dalmatian civilization has always been, as it is today, despite all the Austrian and Croatian attacks upon it, purely Latin and Italian. Balkan Oriental civilization begins beyond the waterhead of the Dinaric Alps which mark the natural frontier between the Balkans and Dalmatia. The Dalmatian contributions to the mother country in science, literature, and art, military science, have been noteworthy in every age. St. Jerome, to whom we owe the Vulgate, was a Dalmation. The Dominus, Bishop of Trau, was a native of Silencio. Trau was the cradle of the most distinguished classical scholars of Cinquecento, while the historian, Giovanni Lucio, was also a native of that city. The name of Ugo Frascolo, who received his early education at Spalato from Nicolo Tommaseo, a native of Spalato, would alone suffice to shed literary glory on Dalmatia.

The Adriatic Sea was for upwards of twenty centuries a Latin lake, the "Mare Nostrum" of Rome, then of Venice, includ-



ing the whole eastern coast. From 1805 to 1815, it was a province of the Kingdom of Italy. After the fall of Napoleon at Waterloo, the Congress of Vienna, in 1815, handed over Venice, Istria and Dalmatia to Austria. In 1848 Venice arose and revived the ancient Republic and for eighteen months held at bay, single-handed, the forces of the whole Austrian Empire. She was subdued only by starvation and cholera, and her ancient dominions were plunged into deeper and more abject servitude.

But it was when the new Kingdom of Italy came into existence, in 1861, that the worst came for the Italian Regent under Austrian rule. The Austrian government started in earnest to transform the Adriatic into a German lake and to do away with the Italian language in Trentino, Gorizia, Trieste, Fiume, Istria and Dalmatia. The outrageous conditions under which Italians of Italian Irredenta were kept led to the war of 1866 and freed Venice. The cities of the Dalmatian coast made great preparations to give Italy's fleet a royal welcome, but the defeat of Lissa by Tegethoff prevented its landing. Austria then adopted a cruel and vindictive policy against Dalmatia. The Dalmatian revolution occurred in 1869 and this gave the Austrian government a pretext for wholesale execution. Murderous Croatian bands were let loose in Dalmatia where they perpetrated the most unspeakable horrors, second to none that were to be committed later by the Huns in Belgium or Servia. The scaffold, wholesale slaughter



and banishment depopulated whole sections. Some of the victims made their escape to Italy, others across the Dinaric Alps, where they met with some humanity at the hands of the Turkish authorities. But 1878 came and the Congress of Berlin, which allotted to these former Turkish territories and extended her rule over both slopes of the Dinaric Alps. From that hour the native Italian cause in Dalmatia and its vicinity seemed doomed, unless a miracle of Providence would intervene.

Since 1878, Austria has been promoting a wholesale immigration of Croatian rabble from the former Turkish territories which have now adopted the name of "Jugo-Slavia," given them by the late Crown Prince of Austria, Francis Ferdinand, a few years before the recent war. Famished hordes, recently released from Mohammedan control, crossed the Dinaric Alps, pounced upon defenceless Dalmatia and its old and marvellous civilization and, under government protection, endeavored to swamp the native element. They were given the franchise the day they landed there, and so they manipulated and debauched the political life that, up to the day of the recent armistice, political and municipal election in Dalmatia was a farce.

The native Italian interests and cause in Dalmatia were looked upon henceforth as a forlorn hope. The first sledge-hammer blow was dealt at the native Italian schools, that had existed there from time immemorial. The native teachers were systemati-

cally dismissed and Croatian schools and teachers took their places. Italian was forbidden. Italian children were compelled to attend Croatian schools and were cruelly discriminated against. The intruding teachers were ignorant, uncultured, and brutal, but they had full sway as to corporal punishment. The press was gradually suppressed by the political machine under sinister plausibilities and monumental lies. "Obdurate" native editors and publishers were blacklisted and eventually sentenced to ruinous fines, long terms in jail, and banished on the most preposterous pretexts. And an artificial Slav (Croatian) press was set up, sustained by the government under thin disguise.

The honorable and highly respected native Italian judiciary was also uprooted and disqualified by the same means. The judges were "retired" one by one, or "deposed" on bogus complaints or formal, trumped up charges, while a set of arrogant, corrupt and unscrupulous Croatian magistrates were installed on the Dalmatian bench. To them, ever since, justice and fairness have been out of the question for the Italian "rebels," whose life in Dalmatia has been made a curse and a burden.

It is no spirit of conquest which has impelled Italy to demand the return of the eastern shore of the Adriatic, but the love of justice and the desire for peace. Italy is a country profoundly liberal in spirit which will know well how to live in peace with all its neighbors, especially with the Slavs.

## CHAPTER IX.

### ITALY'S RIGHT TO HER CLAIMS.

Fiume, historically and geographically, was a separate corporate body. It was even recognized as such by the government of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, which authorized Fiume to declare her own municipal government and to constitute her self autonomous. On October 18, 1918, Charles I., by virtue of a proclamation, permitted all the nationalities of his empire, Fiume included, to determine their own form of national government. The proclamation, in part, was as follows:

Austria, according to the wishes of its people, must become a federal state in which every race will constitute an autonomous body within its territory. . . .

I shall endeavor to show why Fiume feels she is entitled to self-determination.

On January 8, 1918, President Wilson declared before Congress his famous Fourteen Points, thereby giving notice to the world of America's stand in regard to the important issues of the international strife. It was in order to comply with these requirements that Charles I., Emperor of the Austrian Empire, issued his proclamation.

Soon after this, Fiume, through its representative the Honorable Andrea Ossoinack, in the Hungarian Parliament, declared, "Austria-Hungary having admitted the principle of self-determination in her peace

proposals, Fiume as a *corpus separatum*, claims its right for itself. In accordance with this right, its wishes to exercise, without any kind of hindrance, the right of self-determination of the people, I shall make before this exalted House the following clear and concise statement: Fiume stands for the right of self-determination for her people."

A few days following Fiume's declaration in the Hungarian Parliament and according to the proclamation of Charles I., the several nationalities that composed the Austria-Hungary Empire also made a declaration of self-determination. They were immediately recognized by the United States as Jugo-Slavia, the Polish Republic and the Republic of Czech-Slovakia—but until this day Fiume has yet to be recognized by America.

Another assurance was given Fiume when Bonar Law, in the English House of Commons, on October 24, 1918, promised to those nationalities oppressed by Austria-Hungary that they would be admitted to participation in the Peace Conference in matters affecting their individual interests.

But Fiume did not cease its efforts to accomplish its self-determination, and on October 30, 1918, four days before the armistice was signed, the people of Fiume gathered and adopted the following resolution:

"The Italian National Council of Fiume, assembled today in full session, declares that by reason of that right whereby all the nations have attained independence and

liberty, the city of Fiume, which up to now was a 'separate body,' constituting an Italian National Commune, also claims for itself the right of self-determination. Taking its stand on this right, the National Council proclaims Fiume united to its motherland, Italy. The Italian National Council considers as provisional the state of things that commenced on October 29, 1918, AND IT PLACES ITS RIGHT UNDER THE PROTECTION OF AMERICA, THE MOTHER OF LIBERTY AND OF UNIVERSAL DEMOCRACY, and it awaits the sanction of the Peace Congress."

With all the previous assurances given to Fiume, the National Council of the City sent a delegate to the Peace Conference. He was not admitted, although this was a clear violation of her national standing, for she was not placed on the same equality as other oppressed and delivered nationalities. The Peace Conference, regardless of the effort of the Proclamation of Charles I. for the right of self-determination, and in violation of the House of Commons, thus refused recognition to Fiume's representative, but the delegate deputy Ossoinack was allowed the privilege of a private conference with members of the Conference, among whom was President Wilson, to explain and declare his claims for the people he represented.

This total disregard of Fiume's rights did not discourage the National Council of the city and they presented to the Peace Conference briefs in support of their claims, the receipt of which was acknowledged by



the Conference under date of March 28, 1919. These briefs asked that the decisions by this council on October 30, 1918, should be sanctioned by the Peace Conference.

Fiume, again, by virtue of its undisputed right of self-government, on April 18, 1919, decided a second time by a plebiscite to be united to the Kingdom of Italy. All the commercial bodies and civic clubs were unanimously in support of this decision. The City of Fiume sent more than seventy telegrams to the Peace Conference, asking unconditional annexation to Italy and the Municipality and National Council sent the following despatch, which is signed by President Grossich:—

“The National Council which, on October 30, 1918, solemnly declared the union of Fiume to Italy, and placed its plebiscite under the protection of America, expects from the conference the indication that its right, justice and liberty be determined according to the unanimous wish of the people of Fiume. In these hours, when the fate of Fiume is being decided, the National Council appeals to the sense of justice of the conference, expressing its firm faith that on the plebiscite, based upon the cardinal principles of ex-President Wilson, will be ratified by the conference. Fiume, which in 1720, 1779, 1867 and 1918, decided its own fate for itself, reaffirms by a plebiscite vote its indestructible right to self-determination and its unalterable will to belong to Italy.”

It was not long after the previous telegram was sent that the people of Fiume



again made themselves heard. On May 31, following a conference between Ex-Premier Orlando and the representative of Fiume, on the internationalization of the port of Fiume, the National Council of Fiume, on learning of the subject of the conference, adopted a resolution as follows:

“To a Council that refuses the rights of man, we answer no. We are Italians and not a savage tribe: and, above all, we are men who cannot believe that nations of a Washington, of a Victor Hugo, of a Gladstone, dare to shoot their cannon against a little indefensible town. We are, now and forevermore, proud of our liberty and our Italian blood.”

It, moreover, sent an appeal to the Chairman of the Foreign Relations Committee, Senator Lodge, who referred it to the United States Senate on June 6, 1919. Who at the same time it informed the Peace Conference not to consider further the rights of the people of Fiume, as they would be perfectly satisfied to entrust their faith and their liberty to America.

The United States Senate, in considering the treaty of peace, must consider the position of Fiume. It must necessarily demand that the treaties that will be entered into with the enemies shall respect the right of nationality and heed the voice of the oppressed people of the world who long for liberty and the pursuit of happiness. Fiume has always fought against foreign oppression. Permit me to quote what an Italian, who fought for twenty years for the re-

demption of Fiume, says in that connection:

"Fiume is Italian by the blood that flows in her veins, by the words of her mouth, and the burning desire of her heart."

Fiume sent, as I have stated, to the Peace Conference at Versailles her own delegates, who made their wishes known. Our ex-President had previously interested himself in this question and on April 23, in Paris, referring to the Fiume situation, he said, in part:

"The interests are not now in question, but the rights of peoples of States, new and old, of liberated peoples, and peoples whose rulers never accounted them worthy of a right; above all the right of the world to peace and to such settlement of interest as shall make peace secure."

Senator Owen, on July 31, 1918, said before the United States Senate:

"Shall we doubt Italy? The Italian people have shown themselves to be glorious in war and magnificent in peace. When Paris was about to be struck down by the advancing field gray troops of Germany, coming like swarms of locusts down upon the Marne, it was Italy that told the French statesmen, you should not guard the borders between France and Italy. Italy will not stand by Germany in a war of aggression. Italy made a treaty with Germany and Austria; a defensive alliance against aggression on Germany and Austria but not by Germany and Austria on undefended borders of others or any unprovoked assault upon their neighbors. Shall we question

Italy when the Italians by tens of thousands and hundreds of thousands died for a common cause with us?"

Those of us who were privileged to be in Italy during the conflict saw marked evidence of her great sacrifices, the spirit which she instilled into the war and the great part which she continually contributed. Well do I remember during the time I was in Italy, when I toured from north to south for over five months, and as I went from town to town I had opportunities to see the marked sufferings of the people as well as the unusual contributions to the cause which were given so freely by both the civilian and the military population.

I could conclude here and stand on Fiume's inalienable right, but we may consider further this question in relation to conditions of today.

Fiume is Italian by population, by language, geography and history, as well as by all that makes up a nation. Its Italian character was recognized by even the Austro-Hungarian Empire. In Fiume, all the mayors, the deputies, the members of the municipal council, the members of the Chamber of Commerce and of the Courts have always been Italian. Therefore it is self-evident that they can think for themselves and that they should dispose of their own fate. Who can deny them the right to join their mother country?

The Italian soldiers entered the war to aid the cause of civilization; they possessed the same ideals as our boys who fought and

shed their blood at Belleau Woods and Chateau-Thierry. But Italy at the same time fought to safeguard her national existence. The safety of the world depends upon the rectification of her natural boundaries. The annexation of the provinces of Venetia, Julia, Fiume and part of Dalmatia is the completion of the Italian national and geographical unit for that unit which the Italians have been struggling for long years with perfect faith in the justice of her cause.

The world knows Italy's services in this war, and, in spite of her severe handicaps, the part which she played for the cause of civilization. Italy does not seek expansion at the expense of any other nation. The Italians ask only for what rightfully belongs to them. Their traditions and their ideals are incompatible with imperialistic aims, nor did they enter the war for selfish motives. They fought by the side of the Allies to right the wrong perpetrated upon civilization by the Central Powers.

In 1914, Italy repudiated the Triple Alliance and declared her neutrality, thereby permitting France to use the army she had assembled on the Italian frontier. Again, in 1915, Italy renounced her neutrality and cast her lot with the Allies, thereby placing the Central Powers in a precarious situation, as was stated by Ludendorff. This action, unquestionably, made final victory for the Allies possible.

In November, 1917, contrary to the will of General Foch, Italy, assuming the entire responsibility, checked the invasion at the

Piave and thereby saved Venice. At the same time she saved all the Adriatic from the Austrian conquest and by saving herself from total destruction she saved the cause of the Allies.

Two events which, to my mind, have a greater bearing upon the successful outcome of the war than anything else, and which marked the turning point for the fortunes of the Allies, were, first, the victorious stand of the Italian Army on the Piave, when overwhelmed by numbers, guns and ammunition, possessing inferior positions protected by hastily constructed fortifications, it repulsed the Austrians; and, second, the victory of the American Marines at Chateau-Thierry and Belleau Woods.

Italy, since the beginning of the war, enrolled 5,000,000 soldiers, of these the losses in dead were 500,000 on the battlefields, and 300,000 died of disease: in addition 500,000 were permanently disabled. Italy was the only warring nation that called to her colors all her available manhood. Italy was the only warring nation that had her eighteen year old youth on the firing line, since May, 1918. Italy, at the same time she entered the war, was a nation of 37,000,000 against Austria's 54,000,000. Austria had twenty more divisions than Italy, and be it remembered that an Austrian division is larger than an Italian division. Austria had 3,000 more artillery pieces than Italy, this not only gave her a superiority in numbers but artillery is also considered technically su-



perior. Austria had, moreover, the vast advantage of position.

A great deal has been said about the support that Italy received from the Allies, but I am frank to say that insofar as the military assistance given her is concerned she practically shifted for herself, with the exception of three British Divisions, two French Divisions, one Czecho-Slovak Division and a United States Regiment, consisting of 3,600 men. On the other hand, Italy maintained in France a whole army corps, which was greater by far than the combined Allied divisions fighting on the Italian front. This army corps comprised the picked troops of the Italian Army, and gave unexcelled proof of their valor at the Battle of Rheims.

In spite of the appalling handicaps under which the Italian army was operating, with insufficient reserves, 51 Italian divisions and one regiment of Americans were ordered by General Diaz, on the night of October 24, 1918, to begin a major offensive extending from Brenta to the sea. This final blow resulted in the complete rout of the formidable Austrian army, causing the surrender of 500,000 men and the capture of unlimited quantities of booty. Thus was Austria definitely rendered helpless, and thus was final victory assured to the Allied armies. The victory of the Italian army most assuredly brought victory to the Allies for, without the surrender of Austria, it is a matter of conjecture whether Germany would have sought peace as soon as she did.



To deny Italy the right to defend the claims for her boundaries, or to accuse her of being imperialistic because she defends the rights of her oppressed sons, means to deny her the reward for the immense sacrifices she has made and the blood she has shed on the battlefields in the cause of humanity. If Fiume is denied to the Italians and ceded to Croatia, it will mean continuous disturbances and there will never be peace in the Adriatic.

Under the advantage of Italian civilization, the local government of Fiume can guarantee the widest liberties to the Jugo-Slavs. On the other hand, the Jugo-Slav government, still an unknown entity, composed of many conflicting factions, is preparing the repetition of the Austrian-Hungarian coalition which has been destroyed by the arms of liberty, and which would facilitate also the renewing of Teutonic influences in the Balkans. Not improbably, too, it would favor the Bolshevic Slav's wave that is spreading towards the Adriatic. It would, therefore, be impossible for the Jugo-Slavs to attempt to protect the Italians.

In compliance with this fundamental principle of her national unity and her independence, Italy opposed in 1913 the Austrian plan of aggression against Serbia. In order to protect Serbia's national integrity Italy refused to take up arms together with Austria. It was for the national cause of Belgium and Serbia that Italy went to war in 1915, and it was in order to favor Serbia

that Italy renounced in the Treaty of London a portion of Dalmatia and guaranteed to the Serbian people not only one but several outlets to the sea. Italy did not demand for her strategical defense the whole of Dalmatia but one-sixth of Dalmatia. It is true that in the Treaty of London Fiume was allotted to Croatia, but that was a concession to Russia, forced by the circumstances. Russia promised to sustain against Austria the complete cause of Italy, and this obligation was not fulfilled when Russia deserted the common battlefield. In protecting Serbia, Russia was following her own interests to accomplish the Pan-Slavic program and to maintain a steady menace against Italy; this explains her successful insistence in obtaining also Ragusa and Cattaro, which are nothing but military stations.

In 1917 the whole weight of the powerful Austro-Hungarian army was thrown against Italy, causing enemy invasion and brutal devastation of Italian territory. Russia failed to fulfill her obligation and thus eliminated herself from the Peace Conference. Italy, therefore, is no longer bound to fulfill her own obligation towards the people with which Russia had joined in her program. This part of the treaty, moreover, encroaches upon the right of self-determination of the people of Fiume.

When Italy ceded Fiume to Croatia, she did not intend to give that city to a coalition of Austrian nationalities which, under the form of Jugo-Slavia, would resurrect her old enemy. It is these same Jugo-Slavs who

had fought up to the last moment (the second of November, 1918) when Field Marshal Boroevic, the Austrian General, received orders from the National Council of Zagabria, the capital of Croatia, in plot with the Imperial and Royal authorities of Vienna, to rob the Allies of the Austrian fleet at Pola (October 31, 1918) which was assigned by the terms of the armistice to the Allies. The Croatia to which the Treaty of London refers would have been that autonomous portion of territory which, under that name, would have survived the Austrian-Hungarian Monarchy, against which Italy was fighting in order to deliver its oppressed nationalities.

It is, therefore, clear that this new Croatia which would have included Fiume should have been a nation friendly to Italy, and one which would co-operate with Italy to maintain peace and cordial relations in the Adriatic. It is inconceivable that Italy would be willing in 1915 to substitute one enemy nation for another enemy nation. And it is illogical that she should be asked today to give Fiume to a new enemy after she had delivered her from a previous enemy. It is perfectly useless to demonstrate that Croatia today is bitterly unfriendly toward Italy. The present outbreaks only prove that nothing has changed in the nature of the people who made such a large use of the Hunnish spike-clubs. This justifies Italy's apprehensions and her necessity of guaranteeing herself against future menace if the peace of Europe is to be preserved. Italy,

with her perfect and liberal order of government, is in herself a guarantee of peace in the Adriatic and of freedom of navigation for all peoples through the influencing of her type of civilization and through the added authority she receives from the co-operation in Balkan affairs.

Italy is a country of great resources. She possesses a great people, great energy and great ideals and she is tired of depending politically and economically on Germany. The spirit of Italy refuses to participate in any combination of balance of power. English dominance forbids Italy to reach her development in the Mediterranean and in the world.

The United States has an interest in maintaining peace in the Mediterranean and in guaranteeing to European peoples the liberty that is the fruit of a war which has been so costly in both money and American blood.

If Italy needs food and coal, it is because she has given whatever she had for the common cause of her Allies and associates. What better treatment has been accorded to the Germans, Austrians, Croats and Hungarians than the treatment that they have received at our hands when we furnished them with food and coal.

Italy wants to be a close friend of the United States. In America there are three million Italians who contribute to the prosperity of our great Republic and who have given, according to statistics published by Mr. George Creel of the Committee on Pub-

lic Information, 300,000 soldiers to the United States Army. They are the most powerful spiritual link between America and Italy.

After four years of suffering, of destruction, of hardships, the people of this world have entered upon a new era of international justice. Italy's claims will be granted to her, not only because of her sacrifices in this war, but also because truth and justice demand the security of her territory and the safety of her race and civilization.



### THE KING

Italy's most democratic and best beloved citizen





## CHAPTER X.

### ITALY'S KING.

Italy, especially, during the war, revealed to the world a great King. Before May, 1915, King Victor Emmanuel was known as an honest and studious man, a wise and intelligent head of a nation, but the war revealed a figure which truly personifies the New Italy.

He lived intimately the life of his soldiers. Economical persons are rarely popular, though theirs is often the loftiest generosity. From a King, above all others, extravagance is expected: some moral courage was, therefore, necessary when Victor Emmanuel decided to dispense with all unnecessary pomp and luxury, setting an example to a poor country. He demonstrated with actions how to keep the faith to one's ideal, and his honesty demonstrated his love for his people as it never could have been shown before the war.

He became the most democratic of Kings, a citizen among citizens, a modest and good man. He is the most popular man in the kingdom today, yet there is no special need to marvel, for he has always been first and foremost wherever there was a whisper of danger. Surely no one can have forgotten the magnificent devotion with which he toiled and exposed himself during the great cholera epidemic at Naples and the earthquakes of Messina and Calabria.

It is his simplicity and modesty which endear him almost as much as his courage, for Italians are simple and natural people. He has never grovelled to his subjects as some mock monarchs do. With all his affability he is as proud and independent as any old Roman. He is usually very calm, very severe, and at the same time very human. His hair begins to grow gray and there are furrows on his forehead and beside his mouth, yet he bears himself like a young man, walking fast and never tiring. He speaks little and simply, with a crisp, manly voice, but always to the point; he has a way of laughing with his eyes, looking men full in the face with magnetic effect, awaking strong feelings of affection wherever he goes.

He rather welcomed familiarity from the soldiers, who treated him much as they would any officer—perhaps more freely. He was just one of them, yet none ever took advantage of his good nature, though many expressed their fears for his safety with excessive frankness.

He scarcely ever used his automobile on his way to the front. He would take the train at Udine, like a common traveler, and he was usually patient with the long stops. He never used a special train and was always content very often with a single compartment.

He buzzed about the front in a little gray motor, without clattering escorts, armies of cooks, or any comforts. He slept little and cared not where. He was quite happy in an

Alpine hut or in a barn, and enjoyed roughing it immensely. Whenever it was necessary for him to spend the night with the soldiers he always made it quite evident that he must sleep under the same conditions. It was not uncommon for him to say, "I can always sleep as you have slept. Like you, I am a soldier of Italy." His food was of the simplest, a little cold meat or salame, bread and cheese and chocolate; and he was always ready to share it with the nearest soldier. The little gray car carried a large supply of cigarettes which he distributed lavishly.

When, at the beginning of the first winter, a general asked him if, during the months of inactivity, he would return to his family, he solemnly answered: "Why should I return home? Today my family is Italy. My children are all the soldiers who are fighting. Why should I abandon them while they remain?" When it was necessary for him to be in Rome at times, due to affairs of state, he only stayed away from his Venetian home as long as it was absolutely necessary.

He was, indeed, the soldier among soldiers—always at his post. No king has deserved more the faith and love of his people than this simple and good soldier who for three years sacrificed his life in the midst of the dangers of the trenches.

He interested himself in all the thoughts and moods of the men with whom he came in contact, whether it was in having their mail speedily delivered or sending tele-

grams to their homes. He never forgot the wounded. He visited many hospitals and gave words of comfort and appreciation. It was not uncommon to see him with glistening eyes praying over a dying comrade. Here is a touching story of a soldier's last words: "For you, Majesty," the man cried as he stretched out his arms and gave up the spirit. "Not so, my son," was the grave reply: "for Italy."

Like Garibaldi and Napoleon, Victor Emmanuel exercised an unusual fascination for his armies and created a strong impression. The soldiers felt that the king was present everywhere; that he saw them, inspired them, commanded them and understood them. "I seem to be in luck," said a soldier; "for wherever I go I meet the King." As a matter of fact it was not luck at all, for he was everywhere.

The example of generosity, faith, sacrifices, and the great love which he has for his country could be repeated to cover many pages. I shall quote from one newspaper article which, after the armistice, demonstrated again his unfailing attitude towards his people. "King Victor Emmanuel has decided to surrender all the crown properties in favor of the peasants and for national work for former soldiers. Premier Nitti, at one of the first sittings of Parliament, which is to be opened Wednesday, will make this announcement. The crown properties of Italy are larger than those of any country, since the House of Savoy inherited the properties of the rulers of the eleven states into

which Italy was divided before the Kingdom became united. During the war the King gave over his splendid royal palace at Caserta, the Castel Mascali di Piedmont, for the use of his soldiers. His intention now is that the vast lands which he possesses, virtually in every region of Italy, shall go to the peasants who fought in the war, while his palaces, castles and other buildings shall be utilized for philanthropic purposes. In addition the King has expressed a wish that his private patrimony be taxed like that of any other citizen. Thus, the King's civil list, amounting to about \$3,000,000 yearly, will be done away with or greatly diminished, as the monarch used it entirely to administer the crown properties or for charitable purposes."

King Victor Emmanuel has become one of the great servants of justice and humanity. With his usual energy and the characteristics so well revealed during the war, he will give Italy complete unity and the life of the new times. History will call him "Vittorio the Victorious."



## CHAPTER XI.

### ITALY'S NEEDS.

The questions which first arise in the minds of those who follow with interest the economic and financial processes for the readjustment of Italy is to know which are her greatest needs, what is her political as well as her economic condition, and how far Italy may rely upon the potential and actual productive energy of her people.

In considering the needs and conditions of Italy, it is necessary first to strip all exaggerations from those reports which have been spread about to discredit her abroad and especially in the United States.

For some time—in fact, ever since the armistice—malicious rumors have been spread about stating that Italy is on the brink of political and financial ruin. If this were true she ought to be begging for the charity of others and ready to accept the aid of covetous usurers on any conditions. Italy, on the contrary, stands fast on her institutions, trusting in her own resources. It is true she has been and is going through a momentary crisis but that is common to other nations and is the consequence of the great conflict from which they have come out exhausted.

Italy, however, in speaking of her needs, asks only for co-operation based on reciprocal advantages in honest and equitable contracts. The charity comes from Italy who,

although in financial straits, is generously giving to her enemies, by helping the children of her former enemy, Austria.

Italy is politically solid and never before were the people of Italy so far from thinking seriously of revolution as at the present time. The sporadic efforts of a few have shown the firmness and the solidity of the majority, which is aiming only at strengthening the economic conditions and the well-being of the nations.

The Italians are settling down to the realization that the guarantee of the future of their country is to be found in the greater production of economic needs and a return to normal conditions. The problem of the high cost of living will be brought near solution when the industrial groups have accepted this need for increased output, and as long as this feeling permeates the mass of the Italian people any fear of Adriatic Bolshevism will be unfounded.

To insure this greater production, Italy finds herself handicapped by a shortage of the material with which to recoup her industries and resume normal operations. When once the channels of trade begin to assume their ordinary functions and Italy receives the raw material and food necessary to keep her industrial processes in operation there will be no need for apprehension of any violence within the country.

The isolated cases of violence with which Italy has been visited have been the result of reaction from a war to a peace basis and, therefore, are not indicative of the normal

feeling of the Italian people. Italy does not want a revolution and, above all, her working men do not want it. Ex-Premier Nitti some months ago well stated his ambition to have the workingmen's leaders participate in the affairs of the government, persevering persistently to solve the problems of increased production and better living conditions for their families. These would constitute a veritable bulwark against the more violent, who have been asserting themselves moreover in all parts of the world.

It is sound policy that strict guardianship of public order must be assured. There is no democracy without order. The working class which, according to enemies of Italy, is eager for revolution, is now largely represented in Parliament by the Socialists and the Populars. The strikes, which perhaps elsewhere show a decided political aspect, have in Italy always been of a purely economic character; and, after all, have never been as grave as those of some other countries.

During the year 1921 in Italy, the strikes affecting the industries have been greatly reduced. In fact, a comparison of statistics for this year with those of last year shows that the decrease has been 66 per cent on strikes and 83 per cent on the number of strikers and working days lost. The above reduction brings the strikes' intensity to an average lower than the one prevailing during the ten years before the great war. The outcome of same has been generally unsuccessful and only in few cases it was partially

favorable. The industries mostly affected by strike were building, construction, ship-building, metal and machinery, mining and textile. In order to relieve unemployment many public works have been awarded.

In regard to the principal needs of Italy they are common with those of the other countries which have come out of the war exhausted. Italy needs co-operation. It is not sufficient to offer a nation the raw material which is necessary for the rebuilding of her industries and her commerce but it behooves one to offer such raw material at a just cost and thus making its acquisition not impossible.

The rate of exchange in all countries but especially in that of Italy has depreciated in the American exchange to a marked extent. The value of the Italian lire, which during the normal ante-bellum times was 5.17, has reached as high as 26.50. Thus if the Italian buyers must purchase anything in America they are compelled to pay sometimes as high as 300% in exchange in addition to the high cost of transportation.

Italy needs many goods which could be supplied by the United States, but, given this disastrous state of affairs, she will have to deprive herself of many necessary articles, retarding her reconstruction and without any advantage to either side. There is also a decided loss to the United States, whose over-production could easily be disposed of in the foreign markets. Because of this the United States might well offer Italy reasonable aid, not only financially,

but also as a means of facilitating a friendly nation in the work of reconstruction.

If Italy asks for the co-operation of others and especially of the United States, she also offers a vast field for the utilization of capital and raw material. One should bear in mind that Italy, though hampered by lack of coal and raw material, was able to create and develop to the maximum all her war industries. It must be admitted that if the Italian people with a limited amount of coal, metal, oil, cotton and wool were able to perform as successfully their task in the World War, they cannot lack now energy and resourcefulness in this period of reconstruction.

Italy is the richest country in the world in potential power. There is an immense quantity of water gushing from her mountain sides which today wastes itself in small torrents and unhealthy swamps, but which will in the near future run through works arranged so as to distribute all over the country an everlasting source of energy, heat, light and motion. But when Italy is able to make use of her water, so that she will have electrified her railroads and substituted electricity for coal, she will have assured her freedom and economical independence.

In the meantime, Italy's paramount need is for coal: to obtain it is a vital problem and intimately connected with all others. It is, in fact, necessary for Italy today for the restoration of her industries, for shipyards and railroads. Before the war, Italy im-



ported ten million tons of coal every year from England and a smaller amount from France, Germany and America. Today, America ought to supply her with many millions of tons.

The chemical industry in Italy is of some importance. In order to assume a normal output of chemical products she is in need of raw material. Italy desires to give this industry the best possible development so as to establish a large export trade. She has a good deal of sulphur, pyrites, salts and other raw materials and she needs only a relatively small quantity of other raw materials which she does not possess. Italy has some good chemists, able engineers, and skilled workers, while the electric power is relatively cheap.

Other important things Italy asks for are metals. Before the war she used nearly two million tons of iron and steel, of which a hundred thousand tons were imported from England, Germany and Austria. The rest were contributed by Italy herself but she now needs five hundred thousand tons at the least from America alone. Italy has sore need of these metals for the work of reconstruction in connection with the building and developing of her railroads, the rebuilding of her bridges and the completion of her naval constructions, so as to increase and replace the enormous tonnage destroyed by the war.

Because of Italy's great losses during the war her situation in regard to transportation is most critical. She may remedy this,



first, by rebuilding the ships needed; second, by chartering and buying ships from the United States; third, by getting America to reduce her freight rates; and to help form a corporation with mixed capital, Italian and American, for furnishing steel plates and other materials necessary for the construction of ships. The work can be done by Italian workingmen.

Furthermore, metals are needed for agricultural machines, for machinery to be used in the manufacturing of silk and cotton as well as for new railroads. Tin sheets, especially, are needed for the development of the industry of canned goods, as is brass for electric plants and for the electric railroads. From July, 1914, to July, 1919, the capital invested in Italy by companies engaged in the electrical industries amounted to seven hundred and fifty millions of lire. This wonderful development shows Italy's determination to excel in this field.

The interest of America in Italy must be heightened by the great markets that are offered there. Before the war, Italy's foreign commerce amounted to more than a billion dollars. This was chiefly divided among the European powers, with Germany leading all the rest, both in imports and exports. The war left this market in a chaotic state. It is now ready for exploitation by American business—ready for American wares, and waiting for commercial intercourse which will alike benefit both the United States and Italy.

Producers and merchants in Italy are im-

patiently waiting for the great work of economic reconstruction. Scientists are striving to obtain the maximum quantity of raw materials from Nature's resources in order to supply national industries. Programs of research have been formed. Many who are interested in intensifying the productive energy of Italy are working to promote and centralize the work of developing its material richness.

Helium, which is derived in great quantities from certain springs of natural gas in Tuscany, is being utilized for aeronautical purposes. It is the lightest gas known after hydrogen. The United States discovered the possibilities of this gas after Italy had completed plans for its industrial employment, and today dirigibles in the United States are inflated with helium.

Italy can derive from the earth copious metals for the welfare of its inhabitants. During the war we had excellent proof of this. The iron mines of Italy have only a small production (valued at 40,000 tons), but refractory metals of great importance in the construction of siderurgical ovens can be found in the vast beds of the peninsula. For copper and tin, Italy must resort to importation, but she will have first place in the production and exporting of mercury. She is self-sufficient so far as antimonium is concerned. Sulphate mines, in addition to the well-known sulphur mines, have been recently discovered in Sicily.

The element, however, which will most benefit Italy industrially is the vast water-

power she possesses, which will be used to develop powerful electric energy. Italy's hydraulic force is one of the most powerful in Europe. The electrization of Italian railways might well be accomplished with the United States' assistance. With her enormous amount of capital and her production of electrical materials, America would have a large field of activity in the greatest nation of the Mediterranean.

Besides her hydraulic force, Italy has a great wealth derived from the soil. The fertility of the land is in some regions unequalled. Recently the Pugliese aqueduct was completed; this was a gigantic task, worthy of the Roman era, and one which would excite the admiration of all Americans even though they may be acquainted with colossal engineering feats of all sorts. The benefits derived by this vast zone washed by the Adriatic will be far-reaching. A new life will have birth in that region, for a metamorphosis in the system of soil cultivation will result in a greater fertility of those lands tilled by the untiring labor of the Italian farmer, who will receive in exchange the prosperity to which he is entitled.

Italy's war debt of \$16,000,000,000 is being met with fortitude and stoicism.

The indications of the rapid recovery of Italy's financial condition are indeed gratifying. The Treasury Department of the Italian Government reports for the fiscal year 1919 a yield from imports and taxes of 7,217,000,000 lire, exceeding the amount estimated by more than one-third, and also

exceeding the revenue of the previous fiscal year by nearly if not quite one-quarter.

It is interesting to note in round numbers some of the items in this remarkable exhibit:

	Lire
Taxes on personal property .....	182,000,000
Excess war profits .....	235,000,000
Taxes on business transactions .....	454,000,000
Taxes on manufactures .....	223,000,000
Tobacco tax .....	295,000,000
Taxes on Tobacco and Matches .....	50,000,000

The financial statement presented by the Italian Ministry of Treasury in the Chamber of Deputies, shows the deficit of 12,000,000,000 lire for the fiscal year 1920-1921 and the estimated deficit for the present fiscal year of 5,000,000,000, will be reduced to 3,000,000,000 for the fiscal year 1922-1923. This remarkable result should be taken in just consideration for the fact that their budget includes all the expenses deriving from the war, taking also transitory expenses, like reconstruction of invaded and liberated territory and of the Merchant Marine, partially destroyed during the war. For the next financial year is already anticipated a reduction on current expenses for more than 1,000,000,000 lire, following thus the policy of thrift adopted by the Italian Government; in such a way it is possible to effect a further reduction in the deficit.

The financial strength and progressive advance toward complete reconstruction which this shows will give to those interested in Italy complete assurance that there will be no failure on the part of Italy of the energies needful to the mastery of her reconstruction work.

## Lest We Forget

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Let us remember that Italy mobilized and equipped over 5,000,000 fighting men. When Russia crumbled, Italy struck Austria so hard that Germany was forced to send help, so relieving her hard pressed allies on the western front.

Italy sent 250,000 soldiers to France, where they fought for over two years—until the armistice.

Italy sent 250,000 soldiers to Albania against the invasion of the Austrians.

Italy sent 60,000 soldiers to the support of the Allied armies in Macedonia when the Bulgars and Turks were crushed.

Italy sent 40,000 soldiers to the support of General Allenby and his British forces in the Palestine campaign.

Italy sent 250,000 construction men to France, where they labored behind the lines for two years till victory was assured.

Italy rescued over 100,000 Serbian soldiers and Serbian civilians from the Austrian drive; took them to Italy in her own ships, and fed and clothed them from her own meager stores.

In October, 1918, in the greatest military victory in all history, Italy crushed Austro-Hungary, Germany's principal ally, forced her unconditional surrender of over a million fighting men, 6,000 cannon and enormous military supplies, determining Germany's collapse on the western front. Italy was opposed by over 100 divisions of Austrians, Germans and Turks and was aided by two divisions of English, one of French, one of Czecho-Slovaks and the 332nd Regiment of Americans.

Italy was the only warring nation who called to her colors all her available manhood.

Italy was the only warring nation, not excluding Germany, that had her 19-year-old youths under arms for one year.



Italy was the only warring nation that had her 18-year-old youths on the firing line since May, 1918, before the Piave.

Italy was the only warring nation that called out her 17-year-old youths.

Italy, at the time she entered the war, was a nation of 38,000,000 against Austria's 54,000,000. Austria had 20 more divisions than Italy, and be it remembered that Austria's division is a larger one than an Italian division. Austria had 3,000 more artillery pieces than Italy. She had, not only a superiority in numbers, but her artillery is considered technically superior. Austria had the vast advantage of position.

A great deal has been said about the support that Italy received from the Allies, but I am frank to say that insofar as the military assistance given to her is concerned she practically shifted for herself, with the exception of three British divisions, two French divisions and one United States regiment consisting of 3,600 men. On the other hand Italy maintained in France a whole army corps, which was greater by far than the combined allied divisions fighting on the Italian front. This army corps comprised the picked troops of the Italian army, and gave unexcelled proof of their valor at the battle of Rheims.

Italy in normal times has always been the one least given to employing women in the industrial field. For this reason, it is remarkable that in May, 1917, the number of Italian women taking the place of men in war work amounted to 120,000 and grew steadily during the war. The number of women wage earners grew from the 2,500,000 of pre-war days to 5,000,000. The women of the world have great reason to feel proud of the contribution of the Italian women to the war.

Italy's total loss in killed and wounded was figures, were almost as many soldiers, man for man, as the British, and compared to population she lost as great a percentage as France, and twelve times as many as Great Britain and America combined.

Italy's total loss in killed and wounded was 1,977,000, and of the wounded, more than 500,000



were totally disabled. The official figures of Allied losses follow:

	Population	Dead	Per Cent
France and Colonies .....	87,000,000	1,071,300	1.2
England and Colonies .....	430,000,000	658,704	0.15
United States and Colonies .....	105,000,000	58,478	0.05
Italy and Colonies .....	38,000,000	560,000	1.4

Italy lost on the French front, 2,391 dead and 6,886 wounded. Italy lost in men of her navy, killed, 3169, and 309 totally disabled.

Italy lost 61 ships in her naval operations, i. e., 5 battleships, 6 auxiliary battleships, 6 torpedo boats, 8 submarines, 8 destroyers, 8 cruisers, 4 mine drags and other miscellaneous ships.

Italy suffered a loss of over half of her merchant marine. The advance of Italy in trade with the world in imports and exports had so increased up to the time of the war that her merchant marine could carry less than half of any other allies. The official figures follow:

	Total Tonnage Merchant Ships	Lost	Per Cent
England .....	18,356,000	7,825,598	42.63
France .....	2,300,000	908,068	39.44
Italy .....	1,530,000	880,000	57.52

I feel that Italy well deserved the commendation so well put by the late Theodore Roosevelt on May 24, 1918:

"I take this opportunity to pay homage to the high valor and lofty idealism that Italy has shown in this great struggle for humanity and civilization against Germany and her vassal confederate states, Austria, Bulgaria and Turkey. I most earnestly hope that Italy will be able to round out the great work of Victor Emanuel, Cavour, Mazzini and Garibaldi, and that the Italian speaking provinces of Austria will take their natural places in the Italian Kingdom . . . . . Our country owes a deep debt of gratitude to Italy for what she has done, and I earnestly hope that we shall pay this debt as generously as possible, and in as fine a spirit as Italy herself has shown."

*Appendix*

(Translation of letter given to Senator Cotillo, by Premier Orlando, before his departure from Italy.)

*The President of the Council of Ministers*

Rome, September 10, 1918.

Honorable Senator:—

Before you leave Italy I want to send you again a cordial word of approval and of thanks for what you have done during your visit here in a work of propaganda highly efficient and deeply appreciated: a propaganda which could not possibly have been carried on with more enthusiasm and for the purpose of making the real conditions of Italy known to the great American nation. I am particularly gratified that your work, truly inspired by a deep feeling of affection for Italy, has been especially carried on in those regions where civilization is less advanced, as in the southern part of Italy and in the islands. I am convinced that no man could study the conditions and the spirit of those regions with a more acute sense of observation and at the same time with a more sincere feeling of sympathy for Italy.

Now, at the time of your departure you do me the honor of asking some suggestion for your future work. After what you have observed and studied there is no suggestion that I could give you. I am sure that in returning to America with an increased affection towards your country of origin, you will make, by your authority and enthusiasm, known in that great country the aims for which Italy has entered the world conflict; you will explain the condition and the intention of the Italian people, who, in spite of the greatest difficulties and the bitterest sacrifices, are decided and firmly decided to continue to fight by the side of our allies until victory is achieved; you will tell with what feeling of sympathy, solidarity, I would even say fraternity, our people receives the mighty contribution that the American people are making for this immense struggle, in which they have come, not only with their power, but, what is more important, with the noble and generous blood of their children.

Great and profound has been at all times the admiration of the Italians for the United States of America, in which they have seen the hospitable land of human liberty; the present war cannot but strengthen now and forever the friendship and admiration that binds the two countries across the ocean.

All this you certainly feel as well as I; our hearts are moved by the same feeling. You have only to communicate to your fellow citizens the feeling and the love which is in your heart; in this manner you will have worthily served both your country of origin and your country of adoption and will have contributed to make possible a better future for both countries.

I trust that you will carry on this work and I therefore renew to you my thanks and I follow you with my best wishes, my sympathy and my friendship.

Accept my kindest regards and believe me with sincere esteem,

Yours truly,  
(Signed) ORLANDO.

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*S. E. Guglielmo Marconi,*  
*Senatore Del Regno d'Italia, Così' Scrive:*  
31, Via Garibaldi, Gianicolo  
Rome, September 3rd, 1918.

State Senator Salvatore A. Cotillo, Regina Carlton  
Hotel, Via Veneto, Rome.

My dear Senator:

I have followed with deep interest the accounts given in the newspapers of the lectures which you have delivered in the whole of the Southern provinces of Italy and in Sicily with a view to acquainting our Southern populations with what America has done for the prosecution of the war. I can assure you that your work of propaganda has been deeply appreciated by myself as well as by all Italian thinkers and politicians.

I know very well the wonderful work that the United States has accomplished in this first year of their participation in the war and anything that

tends to make our people, and especially that part of them which lives in the South and which furnishes such great numbers of workers and citizens to the United States, realize the importance and magnitude of the efforts which America is making to help us to win a conclusive victory, is worthy of deep admiration and all possible encouragement. Trusting that you will continue to be successful in the work which you have undertaken, believe me,

Yours very truly,

(Signed)

G. MARCONI.

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(Translation of letter from Minister of Propaganda, at Rome, to Senator Cotillo before his departure from Italy.)

*Commissary General for Civil Assistance and Internal Propaganda.*

Rome, September 18, 1918.

Hon. Senator and Friend:—

As you are leaving our country, consent that I express my most heartfelt gratitude for the magnificent propaganda work which you have accomplished and of which the echo has come from one hundred different parts.

I am very sorry that you have to return to America. I lose a precious co-worker who has been able to raise in all Southern Italy, a sense of sure faith in the success of our undertaking; that you have been able to raise to its highest pitch the sentiment of patriotism which animates the Southern population, who have learned from the voice of a representative of the Great North American Republic the inestimable contribution that she has brought and will bring for the triumph of the common cause.

May my most fervid well wishes accompany you in the great country to which you go, expression of the well wishes of the populations, who had the pleasure of hearing your vibrant voice and who hope to see you soon.

A strong handshake from,

Your devoted and affectionate

(Signed)

COMANDINI.

(Translation of letter from His Excellency, Romeo Gallenga, Under Secretary of State, at Rome, to Senator Cotillo before his departure from Italy.)

*Undersecretary's Office*

Rome, September 20, 1918.

Dear Senator:—

We separate, because you are leaving Italy, in this fatidical 20th day of September, in which every Italian heart rejoices in the celebration of the united country against all tyrannies. For this reason my greeting to you seems as much inspired by the country's love which is common in both of us; that in your soul sounds great sweetness the voice of the Latin race which you honor with your noble activity, on this and on the other side of the ocean; and in my soul increases the admiration for the generous American people, highest interpreter, with its glorious works of the ideals by which all free men to-day are animated.

Thanks then, my good and valorous friend, for the holy work which you have completed during your but brief stay among us; thanks for the strong faith with which you have offered the vivifying breath of your Great Country; thanks for the love which you bear to Italy. Men, like you are, represent a great and quick power for the Entente in war; and this promises to be the cement which will unite without fear of snares of the enemy, the free peoples at the completion of the war.

The fighters of the Trentino and the Piave, the workers of our cities and our fields thank you. The dead of the Carso and of the Isonzo bless you, waiting for the unfailing revendication.

Have me, dear Senator, now and forever for your

Affectionate

(Signed)

ROMEO GALLENGA.

(Translation of telegram received from G. Cassola, President of the Press Syndicate at Rome, Italy, to Senator Cotillo.)

GARZIA CASSOLA,

*President of the Syndicate of Reporters of Italian Newspapers.*

Senator Cotillo, Hotel Regina, Rome:

Return cordial greetings of all my colleagues who followed with sympathy work by you nobly completed during your sojourn in Italy. You have known our country in its reality and have had testimonies of all of the admiration and friendship that they have here for the great America that freely wanted to write its own destiny to ours. We wish that among our countries, stronger become the bonds during the war, and after, and we confide in you sure interpreter and fervid propagandist of these sentiments.

GARZIA CASSOLA.

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George Creel, Chairman  
The Secretary of State  
The Secretary of War  
The Secretary of the Navy

Committee on Public Information,  
Washington, D. C.

October 28, 1918.

Honorable S. A. Cotillo, the Senate of the State of  
New York, Albany, N. Y.

My dear Senator Cotillo:—

Reports from Italy continue to bear heavily upon the important results of your work. Your speeches, made from one end of Italy to the other, brought home the objects, aims, and ideals of America in splendid fashion, stiffening the morale of the Italian people and bringing them into closer and more understanding contact with the United States. You made this contribution to the national service even more significant as you gave your time without compensation, and gave it despite all the dangers and discomforts of traveling, cheerfully and courageous-



ly, asking no reward, with the consciousness of having served.

The President, who follows our foreign and educational work very closely, has asked me to express to you his own warm appreciation of your effective and unselfish effort in Italy.

Believe me,

Very sincerely,

GEORGE CREEL, *Chairman.*

---

S. E. Conte Macchi di Cellere,\*

R. Ambasciatore Italiano, a Washington, Così' Scrive.  
Regia Ambasciata d'Italia, October 24, 1918.

My dear Senator Cotillo:

I wish to thank you for your successful mission to Italy and for the most effective work you have done to accumulate information about the conditions existing there. The exceptional opportunities which you have had and which you have taken advantage of to their fullest extent will put you in a position to give to the American public an accurate and complete survey of the Italian situation which cannot fail to be of the greatest importance to both the United States and to Italy.

With cordial good wishes, believe me, my dear Senator Cotillo,

Very sincerely yours,

(Signed) MACCHI DI CELLERE.

---

Senator Salvatore A. Cotillo,

Albany, New York,

\* Deceased.

---

S. E. Thomas Nelson Page,

Ambasciatore Americano a Roma, Così' Scrive.

American Embassy, Rome,

September 23rd, 1918.

My dear Senator Cotillo:

I regret very much having been away during the latter part of your work here in Italy. I was able, however, to observe the excellent work you did be-

fore I went away and have been kept informed of your success. I wish now to take this occasion to express to you my sincere appreciation of the services you have rendered to our common cause by your addresses to the Italian people, bringing to their apprehension the part that America is playing in the war and the sympathy that we have with the people of Italy. There is no doubt that your efforts here, inspired by your patriotism and zeal, have tended to draw even closer together the Italian and American peoples and to inspire that mutual confidence and regard between them which is so desirable from every point of view.

Hoping that this will convey to you the great esteem in which I hold the services you have rendered, I am, Sir,

Very cordially yours,

(Signed) THOMAS NELSON PAGE.

Hon. Salvatore Cotillo,

Senator of the State of New York.











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